
A SOCIO-PEDAGOGIC DESCRIPTION OF SOME FACTORS WHICH ⁴
INFLUENCE THE QUALITY OF A DIDACTIC SITUATION IN
URBAN AND RURAL AFRICAN SCHOOLS IN NATAL
(A Comparative Study)

BY

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CHAPTER I

ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The title of this monograph implies what is contained therein, namely, a socio-pedagogic description of the factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation in urban and rural African schools in Natal. The title does not only imply a theoretical description and evaluation of relevant facts and theories, but specific reference to the practice of teaching - the practical classroom situation as educational situation.

The title thus contains key concepts (underlined above) which make it imperative to give definitive statements of these concepts in order to place the research at hand in proper perspective.

1.2. ANALYSIS OF THE THEME AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

1.2.1. The concept "Socio-pedagogics"

It is necessary to clarify this concept because it is basic to an understanding of the problem under consideration. Social pedagogics is that sub discipline of pedagogics which is especially directed towards the education of man to fulfil his task in society and the state. The word "socio-pedagogics" is derived from the Latin socius (= society) and the Greek pedos (= child) and agein (= direction, guidance). Socio-pedagogics is thus that branch of pedagogics that concerns itself with society's share in leading the child towards adulthood (cf. Pistorius, 1971). Since a society consists of a large number of families, the family provides the first educational experience of the child. The study of home and family background enables us to understand that

school education for Africans of the various ethnic groups in South Africa is tied up heavily with their social development. One of the terms of reference of the Commission on Native Education (1949 - 1951) reads as follows:

"The formulation of the principles and aims of education for Natives as an independent race, in which the past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under ever changing social conditions are taken into consideration" (Eiselen Report: 1949 - 51, p. 7).

In chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this report the Commissioners give a detailed description of the cultural, social and economic situation to be considered in the structuring and re-organisation of a system of Bantu education.

As a background to this study, paragraph 759 of the Eiselen Report is very appropriate. It states:

"The relatively simple social organisation of the South African Bantu has, in a limited space of time, undergone two major changes. In the first place, the subjection of the Bantu to the European political and economic control has made the smooth functioning of the original social institutions, such as the family and the tribe a matter of increasing difficulty. At the same time informal social education given by these institutions has been sharply challenged by what the young Bantu see of the practices in similar institutions among Europeans. In the second place, schools of a western type have been introduced, schools which are concerned primarily not with reinforcing or being reinforced by the other social institutions of Bantu society, but more largely with the transmission of ideas, values, attitudes and skills which have not been developed in Bantu society itself and are often not in harmony with its institutions."

This paragraph above has been quoted in fair detail because it emphasises that any consideration of pedagogical factors which affect the quality of learning in African schools cannot be separated from a consideration of social conditions. In fact the Commissioners of the 1949 - 51 report say:

"It is evident, therefore, that Bantu development and Bantu education must largely be synonymous terms". (Eiselen Report: p. 130; par. 764). C

It is for this reason that the word "Socio-pedagogics" is chosen to form the background of our description of the factors we are investigating. It is also for this reason that a brief description of social and economic conditions on the macroscopic level are described in paragraph 3.2 of this research. The interpretation of data from the empirical study presented in chapter 5 may tend to be more heavily based on sociological than pedagogical considerations. This, in fact, is one of the main aims of this investigation, namely, to reveal that some factors (mainly sociological) influence the quality of a didactic situation in African schools.

However, the purely pedagogical aspect is not lost sight of. The view which supports a strong emphasis on social factors as bases for educational practice is expressed by The Native Economic Commission (U.G. 22/1932, par. 27) when it states:

"It is necessary to point out, however, that for the regeneration of a primitive people, there are educational needs which precede ordinary school education. European education is based on a civilised environment; for a great proportion of the native people this civilised environment has still to be created. It is an educational task, but it is not solely the task of the ordinary school, although the school can in a measure assist in carrying it out."

After setting forth the aims of Bantu Education in Par. 765 the Commissioners, under the chairmanship of W.M.M. Eiselen, conclude the section by attempting to reconcile the social and the pedagogical aspects of education in the following words:

"To harmonise the individual and social viewpoints as stated above, it is essential to consider the language of the pupils, their home conditions, their social and mental environment, their cultural traits and their future position and work in South Africa."

It was necessary to emphasise the social aspect of education as supported by the Eiselen Commission in order to justify the socio-pedagogic approach in this study. However, to produce a clearer picture, mention must be made of a reaction by one of the Commissioners of the 1949 - 51 Commission, namely Prof. A.H. Murray who emphasised in par. 169 that:

"The conception that education has a "social purpose" and that its function is to preserve and propagate the group's culture conflicts with the Christian standpoint that man is an end in himself and his social institutions merely means to aid him in a better life."

Prof. Murray then argued that the psychology that was accepted as the foundation for theories about "the social purpose of education" was based on an erroneous interpretation of, and a confused tradition arising from the Aristotelian doctrine of man as a political animal and social creature.

The following sentence is quoted because it seems to establish the concept of socio-pedagogics (as applied in this study) very clearly:

"Education is concerned with man, and only in an applied sense with society ... His education is essentially the development of his own potentialities, through his own faculties as well as under the stimulus of his physical and social environment." (Eiselen Commission Report: 1949 - 51. p. 170).

1.2.2. The concept - "didactic situation"

The word didactic is derived from a Greek word didaskein which means, to give instruction or to teach. Different derivations have been made from the original word to explain the participation of man in the activities of teaching. Words like didaskalos (teacher), didaskalia (vocation of teaching), didache (a person who engages in teaching) (Van der Stoep: 1973, p. 1) have been derived from the same root.

Didactics includes the theory as well as the art or skill of teaching. In the scientific context didactics may be

described as a theory of what teaching entails; what conditions are valid for the progress of teaching events, the general principles to be considered in teaching; the methods which may be relevant in the practice of teaching; what is understood by learning activity and learning intention; what the subject matter of tuition is; in what way the subject matter may be arranged; what the concept "school" really involves; the role played by the school as an institution in the life of a child; which aspects may be considered by the teacher to enable him to work orthodidactically, i.e. remedially and correctively in his classroom. (Van der Stoep: 1973; p. 1).

P.A. Duminy (1969, pp. 4 - 12) says a didactic situation is formed by the pupil, the teacher and the subject matter. The central idea in a didactic situation is that the teacher should mediate between the pupil and the subject matter, enable the child to conquer it and make it his own. In this way, a learning pupil, an assisting teacher and the subject matter jointly determine the quality of a didactic situation which is created in order to stimulate and encourage learning. The teacher selects the subject matter, considers the pupils' developmental level and needs, and makes use of the information about the learning process and environmental possibilities.

The pedagogic basis of a didactic situation rests on the recognition of the fact that the pupil is on his way to adulthood. Therefore, whatever action is taken in a didactic situation must be concerned with the process of moulding the personality of the growing child.

The presentation of the subject matter becomes meaningful, and thus becomes pedagogical, only when it coincides with the needs and interests of the child and assists him to understand the world around him. The child's entry into the school is coupled with fear and hesitation which depends on the home environment. An overprotected child misses this

protection at school and begins to feel insecure. An unprotected child also feels insecure and is terrified by the new experience. Thus, the structure of the school environment plays an important role in the relations between the pupils on the one hand and the subject matter on the other hand. If a child cannot fit what he learns into his own world of experiences he usually comes out of the impasse by rote memorisation of the subject matter or an escape into an indifferent attitude and carelessness with regard to the teacher and the subject matter. A didactic situation must have a pedagogic basis and an aim. The pupil, the teacher and the subject matter, the method of procedure in presenting this matter, and the school environment are the components which must be brought into harmonious relationship in order to achieve an educational aim.

1.2.3. The concept "quality"

Quality means a degree of excellence. The standard test of quality in education is the effect that formal education has on pupils. It would be impossible to determine this effect because this would require more than a lifetime of study, but mainly because there are a number of factors which have a bearing on the development of a human being other than school education. Thus, it must be understood that when we deal with factors singly and as simply as the information at our disposal permits, it is always within the understood context of a reality in which they are complex and interacting. J.L. Mursell (1954, p. 1) sets out what he calls the criterion of successful teaching as: "...that which brings about effective learning, that is, results. By what kind of results should successful teaching be judged? He asks and answers: "Results which last and that the learner can and does actually use in life. No teaching can be considered truly effective if its results quickly vanish however impressive its immediate effects." Results should be those which the learner can and does use freely, flexibly and confidently in his life. Therefore, results which do not enter into the personality of the

learner or shape his mental development, or affect his thinking or influence his actions may properly be called spurious. In mathematics, for example, pupils must grasp the method of thinking and analysis with their endless implications. History must convey a sense of the sweep and current bearing of the past. Science must yield an understanding of how explanations are elaborated and controlled by objective analysis.

In other words, the quality of a didactic situation refers to teacher effectiveness. The American Educational Research Association suggested what it calls "A Hierarchy of Criteria According to Ultimacy" (Gage: 1965, p. 17) as follows:

Teachers' effect on pupils' achievement and success in life.

Teachers' effect on pupils' subsequent schooling.

Teachers' effect on pupils' achievement of current educational objectives.

Teachers' effect on pupils' satisfaction with the teacher.

By teacher effectiveness is, therefore, meant the teacher's effect on the realisation of some values which usually take the form of some educational objective defined in terms of some desired pupil behaviours, abilities, habits or characteristics. The terms "pupil gain" and "pupil growth" are used to refer to this kind of ultimate criterion.

Mitzel (1957, p. 5) identified four types of variables or "classifications" of information which he deemed necessary concerns of "any investigator who seeks fundamental knowledge in general area that is frequently called teacher effectiveness".

TYPE I variable refers to human characteristics on which teachers differ and which it can be hypothesised account in part for differences in teacher effectiveness.

TYPE II variable refers to contingency factors which

modify the whole complex of behaviours that enter into the educational process.

TYPE III variable refers to classroom behaviours of teachers and pupils.

TYPE IV variable refers to criteria or standards, consisting of "intermediate educational goals", i.e. the measurable outcome at the end of a period of instruction as distinguished from the ultimate criterion which might be phrased 'a better world in which to live'.

In connection with this classification, Mitzel, (1957, p. 1) has this to say (I quote this and underline it because it is the basis of the present investigation):

"In such a scheme, teacher variable and pupil variable are direct determinants of teacher behaviour and pupil behaviour RESPECTIVELY. Environmental variables indirectly influence both teacher and pupil behaviours. In the view presented here, the complex of pupil-teacher interactions in the classroom is the primary source to which one must look to account for growth".

1.2.4. The concepts "urban and rural African schools"

In order to grasp the idea of urban and rural schools in general, it is necessary to refer to The World Year Book of Education, 1970 which discusses the problem of education in cities; and The World Year Book of Education, 1974, which discusses education and rural development.

Brian Holmes (1970, p. 19) contributes an article in the 1970 Year Book in which he discusses the concept of urbanisation. This concept is a complex and a confusing one. It overlaps considerably with the processes of industrialisation and modernisation and is sometimes used as a synonym for them. The basic indicators of urbanism are population density, a settlement in a given location of more than a certain number of people. Little consensus has existed on the degree of density or the size of the population cluster which makes an

urban centre. Denmark defines an urban centre as a population of 250. Korea puts it at 40 000. The International Urban Research Centre (1959) defines an urban centre as consisting of a population of at least 50 000 people living in a territory comprising a central city and adjacent areas with an economic relationship to the centre and predominantly engaged in non-agricultural employment.

The population of a city is extremely diverse economically, socially, ideologically and very often racially and religiously. This characteristic heterogeneity and the mutual dependence and interaction of the several populations comprising an urban centre, is most germane to the educator. They point to the existence of an urban culture and the peculiarity and the educational importance of the experience of living in it. The pupil population of urban schools poses new problems, not only because of numbers, but also of their backgrounds, aspirations and competencies.

Philip Foster and James R. Sheffield (The World Year Book of Education, 1974, p. 4) argue that it makes little sense to talk of clearly defined urban and rural sectors without recognising that there is an extensive shadow land between them within which people and resources actively move. In fact, rural and urban development is essentially intertwined. The boundaries between town and country are relatively fluid with a constant pattern of migration between city and countryside. Under such conditions it is not very useful to talk of clearly separable urban and rural educational enterprises.

Turning back to the idea of urban and rural African schools in Natal, we also find that the Zulu speaking Africans (with whom we are dealing in the present research) who reside in the province of Natal, can be roughly divided into urban and rural dwellers. A century or more ago, South Africa consisted of rural peoples with diverse cultural backgrounds and a subsistence level economy. The discovery of diamonds and gold injected a large scale industry into the

economy and accelerated urban growth. In Natal, Durban is the main industrial city and is situated on the eastern seaboard of South Africa (World Year Book of Education, 1974, p. 79). In 1970, greater Durban had an estimated population consisting of 280 000 whites, 310 000 Indians, 400 000 Africans and 41 000 Coloureds (World Year Book of Education, 1970, p. 40). These people with diverse backgrounds and value systems are catered for by educational systems under different authorities (R.M. Ruperti: 1973, pp. 57 - 66).

Urban African schools, therefore, refer to schools which cater for the children of the African population who reside in and around the major centres. Rural African schools are those that are situated in rural areas, a good distance away from a city.

A further description of this idea will be given under a paragraph dealing with "the area covered in the empirical study".

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The phenomenal increase in the numbers of African pupils attending school in the Republic of South Africa shows the importance that the African people attach to education. With the increase in the number of pupils, there was also a notable increase in the number of schools and teachers. This trend can be shown by comparing the following figures covering a period of almost twenty years (Department of Bantu Education, Annual Report, 1974, p. 133):

TABLE I : NUMBER OF AFRICAN SCHOOLS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS
IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

YEAR	SCHOOLS	TEACHERS	PUPILS	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO	PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION AT SCHOOL
1955	5 801	21 974	1 013 910	1:46	9,76
1965	8 810	34 042	1 957 836	1:57	14,12
1974	11 947	62 879	3 513 975	1:55	19,80

The trend stands out clearly. The number of schools doubled. The number of teachers and pupils trebled over the same period. The teacher pupil ratio reached a maximum in 1965, but is still high in 1974, one teacher for every 55 pupils. In chapter 3 further reference will be made to this important issue of teacher-pupil ratio. From these figures it can be deduced that the increase in quantity is very satisfactory indeed.

The main problem in African education, however, lies in the area of quality. Donald G. Burns (1965, p. 9) emphasises the problem of quality as follows:

"In schools, such education as the pupils receive is too often the very negation of what is desirable for promoting intellectual development. His needs for physical and mental activity are repressed since this is the only way in which teachers can handle over-large classes. Learning is regarded as getting the right answers through mechanical drill, not as finding out something by one's effort."

E.P. Ndaba (1968, p. 157) quoting Prof. Duminy, remarks that traditional methods are predominantly used in our post-primary schools. The position is equally bad, if not worse in the primary schools where the foundation ought to be laid properly.

Butler (1954, p. 324) states that a negative physical and social environment seriously affects the realisation of the purpose of learning. Overcrowding, understaffing, the

low level of teachers' qualifications, poor ventilation, and so on, are some of the factors which militate against the application of the didactic principles of activity and individualisation. If these principles are negated, the individual cannot be helped effectively to actualise his personal and social potentialities which ought to be important aims of education.

The high drop-out rate (as will be described briefly in chapter 3) suggests that there must be a problem of quality somewhere. The low percentage passes at Form III (previously called Junior Certificate) and Senior Certificate levels also indicate a problem of quality (Annual Report: 1974, p. 134). The socio-economic problems caused partly by industrialisation and urbanisation have generated a host of educational problems that have a direct bearing on the quality of work that takes place in a school. There has been a growing recognition of the classroom as the locus of a complex and dynamic multi-directional system of pupil-teacher interaction. Therefore, a need exists for the study of the various dimensions of pupil-teacher interaction.

The apparent problem in African schools is thus, that of setting up conditions that will enable educators to apply the didactic principles in a most effective way. These conditions cannot be set up until the factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation have been scientifically determined.

1.4. PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The aim of this study is, first, to explore the available literature on the topic and then to identify and isolate certain factors which affect the quality of teaching in schools. The intention is to describe a limited set of conditions. While this study seeks to describe some factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation in general, it intends to take one factor, namely PUPIL-TEACHER relationship and investigate empirically whether an urban environment

produces a different reaction of pupils to their teachers than does a rural environment. The factor of environment is herein emphasised following upon Piaget's findings that intelligence is adaptation which proceeds through assimilation of selected stimuli from the environment and their incorporation into inner schemata already inherited or built up from past experience. Piaget argued that the environment is indispensable to this development because environment partly determines what the child will assimilate into his schemata, merely by the presence or absence of certain stimuli (G.W. Miller: 1971, p. 44).

It must be pointed out that the purpose is not to indulge in vague generalisations about the social, political or economic factors which affect the quality of education of the Zulu-speaking African children in Natal. However, since school conditions depend largely upon the socio-cultural and economic atmosphere that obtains in a particular country, reference will inevitably be made to these conditions in order to clarify the problem.

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

This study is not only of academic interest on a theoretical level, but it is of a most practical nature if we consider that the Zulu people of Natal and KwaZulu are on the threshold of a political and social breakthrough in terms of the constitutional and political developments taking place in the Republic of South Africa. Experience in the other African States is that the importance of education is being stressed (Brian Rose: 1970) and great emphasis is laid on the elimination of illiteracy and the provision of technical education.

Since sound educational policy must be based on a concrete knowledge of the whole cultural position of the country under scrutiny, it will be necessary in this study to consider, on a comparative basis, the factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation under the two

cultural circumstances under which the Zulu people in Natal find themselves today. The broad division of the African people in South Africa can be polarised into two extremes. On the one extreme we have people who are still leading a traditional way of life under tribal conditions with very little influence of the modern, western and Christian, industrialised and urban conditions. On the other extreme, we have those who have been completely "detrribalised", westernised, christianised, industrialised and live in urban areas. In between these two extremes there are various gradations of people who are in various stages of transition. Some are being detrribalised without being christianised and others are being christianised without being detrribalised. And so we find a wide range of categories. Since the environment plays a large part in the social evolution of a people, and since urbanisation is one of the processes that affects the type of life of people all over the world, the division in this study will be in terms of the urban and the rural environment.

The transitionists are in a state of confusion, and this confusion must have a bearing on the school situation. Since the phenomenon called education manifests itself in particular cultural patterns which have values accepted as valid and valuable by a particular people and community to which a child gives expression in his way of life, it is necessary to establish the specific factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation in relation to these different cultural circumstances. Obviously, no one study, and no one person in one lifetime can hope to identify and isolate (and less still adequately describe) all the factors that influence any human situation. Therefore, we embark on this research with full respect for the complexity of the educational phenomenon. Under the section on the delimitation of the field of study (par. 1.6. below) these limitations will be pointed out.

1.6. DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

1.6.1. Complexity of the educational phenomenon

It is necessary at the very beginning to acknowledge the fact that a study of this nature is seriously limited. There are so many factors which have a bearing on a didactic situation, some concrete and others indeterminate and intangible, that no one can hope to isolate and establish all of them. Nevertheless, we set out to establish what we consider to be the most significant factors that have to be taken into account in all questions of policy and administration so as to achieve the educational aim. The situation must be surveyed and described interpretatively in terms of all obtainable facts about it and in particular, with reference to norms. Our norm is the educational aim, hence the pedagogical description.

Having recognised this first limitation, it is hoped that a basis will be provided for further research in this field. In this way a foundation is laid for research leading to more powerful forms of application. If this foundation is valid, a more precise language that can be used for discussing educational matter affecting our schools is provided. By this we mean that we want to provide people with precise empirical facts that will help them to state precisely what factors were found to affect a teaching situation in the specific schools studied, rather than to argue on the basis of vague generalisation.

1.6.2. The extent to which factors affect a didactic situation

Even if all the factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation could be established, a further limitation would be to establish and determine, the extent to which these factors actually influence this quality. This study does not aim at establishing this extent. Since each teacher establishes a unique situation, different from any other

didactic situation and since each class is different from any other class, it is clear that innumerable factors influence each didactic situation in a different way. It is not intended, therefore, in this study to describe factors which influence a didactic situation in any known way that can be determined.

Nevertheless, if we know the nature of the quality we are talking about, we can suppose that a certain factor will affect this quality in one way or another.

1.6.3. Delimitation of the area covered in the empirical study

This study is limited to Natal (KwaZulu school area) where all the African schools cater for the Zulu-speaking pupils of the Zulu ethnic group, except for one school called Ikaheng in the Nquthu Circuit which caters for a small enclave of the South-Sotho speaking pupils.

Natal has many so-called "Native Reserves" (Horrel: 1969) dotted all over the Province. Natal has also a number of towns and cities around which have settled many Zulus in the migratory process of urbanisation as a result of industrialisation. Therefore, an area representing rural African conditions will be chosen in the Mtunzini magisterial district. Schools in this area fall under the Mtunzini Circuit of inspection for educational purposes. Representing an urban area will be an investigation of the conditions in the Umlazi Township near Durban. The schools fall in the Umlazi magisterial district in the inspection Circuit of Umlazi North.

1.7. METHODS OF STUDY

The goal of science is to accumulate and systematise knowledge of the external world. Using established methods accompanied by a particular view of reality, science con-

ceptually orders empirical phenomena. Now, the scientific study of human behaviour assumes that the basic criteria of science can be utilised. In the search for generalisations, human behaviour is studied as a process or a sequence of events in which certain phenomena are related to other phenomena. Such generalisations when eventually achieved, are usually stated in terms of probabilities (Mouilly: 1970, p. 54).

In this study we wish to establish the fact that certain phenomena (factors) are related to other phenomena called a didactic situation. In the study of human behaviour there is an attempt to order the diversified world of discrete phenomena. This task is often accomplished through the development of classifications. The categorising of observations into classes or types provides a means by which concrete occurrences can be ordered and compared.

Therefore, three methods will be used in this study, viz:

- (a) There will be a systematic and critical study of available literature pertaining to the problem.
- (b) There will be a field investigation where empirical data will be collected by means of questionnaires. This is described in chapter 5, paragraph 5.3.2. Data collected will be analysed by means of the statistical methods described in chapter 5, paragraph 5.5.
- (c) The whole investigation will be treated on a comparative basis using the comparative method. The general understanding of comparative education is that of a comparison between different countries. However, in this present study we shall not investigate different countries, but merely two localities within the same country and the same educational system. This is, therefore, not a comparative method in the strict sense of the word.

Among the various approaches used in comparative education viz. utilistic, melioristic, scientific planning and

social science approach, the last-mentioned was chosen for purposes of this investigation. Since the aim of this study is to deal with factors in their microscopic dimensions, the microscopic approach is selected. G.C. Kinloch (1972, p. 1) explains what he calls the microscopic analysis where behaviour is analysed on the interpersonal or small group level and macroscopic level where the analysis of behaviour is on a more general societal or cultural level. The choice of approaching the factors on an interpersonal, microscopic level stems from a conviction that the ESSENCE of a didactic situation is a relationship of trust between the teacher and the pupils. Although the general social, political and economic conditions in a country determine the quality of teaching to a large extent, the interpersonal relationship can do much in spite of this. In this investigation factors on a macroscopic level will merely be mentioned and briefly described in order to establish the fact that the personal microscopic level is determined by these factors and also that these levels are intertwined and cannot be separated except for purposes of discussion.

1.8. PROGRAMME OF THIS STUDY

In Chapter 1 the problem was stated, the purpose and justification of this research outlined as well as the methods that will be used to investigate this problem.

In Chapter 2 a short historical review of the development of education among the Zulus will be given.

Chapter 3 will describe some factors that were found from the literature read to influence the quality of teaching in African schools in general.

In Chapter 4 specific factors that are assumed to influence the quality of a didactic situation in African schools are then isolated and described.

An experimental study of pupil-teacher relationships is discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 6 gives an analysis and interpretation of data that was collected in an empirical study. A summary of conclusions and recommendations is given in Chapter 7, which is a final chapter. A list of 21 Appendixes is given at the end.

1.9. CONCLUSION TO THIS CHAPTER

Now that the problem has been sufficiently oriented, we shall proceed to analyse it in the forthcoming chapters. To put this problem of factors that may influence the quality of a didactic situation in proper perspective it is necessary to trace, first of all, the historical development of school education among the Zulu-speaking Africans in Natal.

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CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL EDUCATION AMONG THE ZULUS IN NATAL

5

2.1. INTRODUCTION

2.1.1. Importance of History

While education is concerned with the immediate present and the future, it is rooted in the past. Daily planning, doing and structuring in education must constantly be nourished by the well spring of the total cultural evolution. Robert Ulich of Harvard University (Lewis: 1962, p. 81) says: "We are fumbling around in education because we know so little about the future and do not bother to know about the past".

We shall, therefore, attempt in this chapter, to sketch briefly the historical development of education among the Zulus in Natal, because some of the difficulties inherent in the present and in the immediate future, are historical consequences of an educational evolution process emanating not from within the society but rather imposed from outside.

But before we describe the origin and development of formal schooling among the Zulus, it is necessary to refer briefly to informal indigenous education that prevailed before the advent of formal schooling.

2.1.2. Indigenous Educational Patterns

People from Europe, who were accustomed to regarding school and education as almost synonymous, thought that Africans had no education at all when they first came into contact with them.

The salient feature of indigenous African education is the virtual absence of any formal training. The nearest

approach to schools among Africans are the various initiation ceremonies associated with puberty and circumcision (Krige: 1936, pp. 81 - 117). The main purpose of these ceremonies is not to inculcate knowledge so much as to ensure a propitious transition from one stage of life to another and imbue the individual with qualities of maturity and with values and outlook of an adult. In puberty initiations, the boy or girl is isolated under the control of his immediate seniors, who sometimes subject him to harsh treatment to impress on him the respect due to those older than himself. There is instruction directed largely to his newly acquired sexual powers and his responsibilities as an adult. The instruction is indirect in the form of symbolic formulae, songs, dances and play-acting (Krige: 1936, pp. 95 - 100).

Initiations, nevertheless, play a minor role in the total scheme of African education. To the African, education is life itself; it is the gradual, informal induction of the individual into the social life of the community. The knowledge and skill that are necessary to wrest a living from nature are gained, not by any formal instruction of the child, but by letting it take part in practical activities. A boy of four or five begins to herd goats near the village, then later joins the bigger boys who herd cattle. Here he is introduced into a new world, with its own hierarchy of authority. It is while herding, that a boy gets to know the properties and qualities, (economic, nutritional and medical) of plants, the habits of birds, cane rats and other animals. In these activities the emphasis is on learning. Teaching comes in response to the individual's own interest and desire to learn. The child learns in real situations where he sees the practical use and results of his work. Every advance in knowledge and skill is pragmatic, directed to achieve a result there and then. The small girl who carries water has the satisfaction of seeing it consumed in the household. The herdboys realise that he is rendering a service to the whole community, and feels his importance accordingly.

It is social behaviour that holds a central place in African education. Qualities of character, the attitudes and values of the individual, smooth human relationships, reciprocity, respect for authority, proper appreciation of cattle and crops on which society depends for its livelihood are emphasised. It is expected that every child will grow up to take his place naturally and normally in society. The child is encouraged to do the right thing not because of fear or punishment, but by the general emphasis on reciprocity and interdependence in all social relationships.

2.2. ORIGINS OF FORMAL SCHOOLING FOR AFRICANS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Early school education for Africans owes its origin and growth to missionary enterprise. C.T. Loram (1927, p. 46) states:

"The history of Native Education in South Africa is the history of South African missions, for it is due entirely to the efforts of the missionaries that the natives of South Africa have received any education at all, and to this day (1917) all but three of several thousand native schools are conducted by missionary agencies."

2.3. HISTORY OF EDUCATION FOR THE ZULUS IN NATAL AND ZULULAND

When the pioneer missionaries started working among the Zulus, they had to overcome many difficulties. First, there was the language problem. Secondly, the attitude of some of the chiefs towards education and the new religion was not encouraging. Thirdly, the social structure did not provide for formal school education and many parents needed their children for household work. It is interesting to note that some of the problems which still persist today, like language and medium of instruction, unfavourable home background, early dropouts and clash of cultures, had their roots in these early times and the circumstances surrounding the introduction of schooling among the Zulus.

As early as 1823 the Rev. W. Threlfall established a school among the Gaza people. He was soon struck down by malaria and had to leave Natal after a year or less. The history of education for the Zulus really begins in 1835 with the arrival of Captain Allen Gardiner, who established a school at the mouth of the Tongaat River. The first real school was established at the Royal Kraal at Umgungundlovu by the Rev. Owen, but the school was unsuccessful owing to irregular attendance. In 1835, three missionaries, Dr. Adams and Messrs Grout and Champion of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions arrived in Natal. They were later joined by a fourth missionary, Mr Lindley, who first tried to establish a station in the Transvaal. However, many missionaries had to leave Natal during the 1837 - 38 tumult. Lindley's station at Imfume in the Natal South coast was burned down. In 1839 the Voortrekkersraad granted permission to Dr Adams to establish a mission station at Amanzimtoti. In 1840 permission was also granted to Lindley and Grout. In 1843, British rule was established in Natal. In more settled conditions the Wesleyan, Berlin and Norwegian Mission Societies established mission stations near Mapumulo, Empangeni, Mahlabathini, Emmaus and New Germany. The Rev. James Allison founded institutions at Indaleni, Edendale and Gordon Memorial. Hence from 1842 missionaries worked at these mission stations. Sir Theophilus Shepstone (appointed Diplomatic Agent among the Zulus in 1846) encouraged Missionaries. Settlements grew at Groutville, Umpumulo, Empangeni, Entumeni, Mahlabathini, Emmaus and New Germany. A grant system was established and in 1856 it was hoped that £500 would be reserved from £10 500 collected from hut tax. Bishop Colenso received a grant for his Zulu Dictionary and Dr Callaway for his printing press at Lower Umkomaas at Springvale (cf. McKerron, 1934).

Up till the year 1838 there is little to record regarding education for the Zulus in Natal. Politically, Natal was part of the Cape but constant intertribal wars and the frequent raids by Zulu kings prevented anything like a gene-

ral system of education. The few missionaries who were at work among the Zulus of Natal maintained small and struggling schools, and these were few in number and unimportant in results. At the outset, we must notice a difference between the treatment of Africans in Natal and their treatment in the Cape. In the Cape it was a definite part of Sir George Grey's policy to break up tribal organisation. In Natal, on the other hand, as a result of Theophilus Shepstone's handling of native administration, no such attempts were made.

In the Letters Patent of 1848 by which Natal became a separate colony, it was laid down that there should be no interference with native law and custom except in so far as these were repugnant to the principles of humanity (McKerron: 1934, p. 165). In the Cape the restricting clause was that Native Law and Custom should not be repugnant to the Law of England. This difference is important. The policy in Natal has always been to preserve as far as possible, the racial and tribal characteristics of the natives. Hence we have the authority of the Zulu chief maintained, a separate code of native law, separate schools for the Zulus and the retention of the Zulu language in the schools. Now, with this emphasis on tribalism in the rural tribal areas, it becomes a traumatic experience when these Zulus migrate to non-tribal areas in and around the cities. That is why this study attempts to compare the situation in the two areas.

In the same Letters Patent of 1848 it was expressly enacted that the sum of not less than £5 000 raised from the general revenue of the colony was to be expended for the benefit of the natives. But there was no government control of the teaching in the schools. In 1852 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the past and present state of the Kafirs in the District of Natal and to report as to their future government. This report advocates a measure of education for the Zulus which has not been achieved even today. Industrial schools were to be established in every village;

the attendance at schools of pupils between the ages of seven to twelve years was to be made compulsory in native locations and later on "private occupied farms or elsewhere." The English and the Dutch languages were to be taught; Infant schools were to be encouraged; religious education was imperative but schools had to be left to the Christian churches. The Commission's report was fruitless.

Sir George Grey who was appointed Governor of the Cape in 1854 came into contact with Bishop Colenso who had been made the first bishop of Natal in 1853. Bishop Colenso was already upholding the cause of the Zulus against what he called "European aggression". These two powerful men influenced the Natal Legislature. In 1856 the first legislation regarding the education of the Zulus was passed by the Legislative Council and approved by the Secretary for the Colonies. The Ordinance for promoting the education of the Coloured Youth in the District of Natal made it permissible for the Government of Natal to establish and maintain schools for the education of the Zulus, and to contribute to the support of these schools. The schools were to be placed under the supervision and management of the missionaries but were to be inspected and reported upon by a Government Inspector of Schools. The whole amount of money contributed was not to exceed one fifteenth part of the estimated revenue of the District for the year.

In 1859 Dr Robert Mann was appointed as first Superintendent-General of education in Natal. The control of education for the Zulus was not his responsibility. He was, however, appointed officially by the Lieutenant-Governor as "VISITOR" of Zulu institutions. Educational administration of grants to missionaries and others in charge of schools for the Zulus was in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor. In 1865 the "Visitor", Dr Mann, already had reason to doubt the value of industrial school training and favoured grants to the "common school", i.e. schools not giving any industrial training. In 1868 the acting visitor, Mr Brooks, reported

that the grants to Industrial schools were not worthwhile and these grants were stopped.

Teacher training at the time was under denominational control. During Dr Mann's term of office provision had been made for the central training school at Amanzimtoti where 18 boys were selected to "receive a more careful and complete training as teachers". A similar training school was founded at Inanda by Mrs Mary K. Edwards in 1869. The number of schools steadily increased. The Anglican Arch-deacon established 35 schools in the Nquthu district and founded the St Augustine's Institution at Nquthu in 1880. In 1882 the Trappist Abbot, Francis Pfanner with 30 monks of his order established the Institution of Mariannahill.

Law No. 1 of 1884, also known as the Native Primary Education Law of 1884, embodied a policy of educational differentiation. The inspection, organisation and direction of Zulu schools were placed under specialist officials. The Council of Education took over all responsibility for African schools and appointed a "Native Education Commission" to advise the Council in all matters concerning education of the Zulu children. The passing of this act and the subsequent appointment in 1885 of Mr Fred Fynney as the first Inspector of Native Education gave a strong impetus to the education of the Zulu children. According to Mr Fynney's report there were 70 native schools in receipt of Government grants-in-aid. The total enrolment of these schools was 3 817 pupils.

In 1886 the teachers' examination of the First, Second and Third class were established. The syllabus consisted of the subjects of the Native Schools' syllabus, and in addition manual work and an ambitious course in science. Mr Fynney examined the first Zulu teachers who presented themselves for the Teachers' Certificate at the Native High Court at Pietermaritzburg in 1887.

A block of land, 52 acres in extent, was set aside in the Zwartkop Native location near Pietermaritzburg for the purpose of establishing a Government Native Industrial School. Although Mr Fynney spoke well of the pupils when he came to examine them, doubt soon began to appear as to the success of the school. At one time all the boarders absconded owing to some disagreement with management. The cost of the school began to alarm the Government. The absence of support from the local people continued. Finally, in 1892 the institution closed down.

In June 1894 (Pells: 1938, p. 64) on the establishment of Responsible Government, The Council of Education ceased to exist and the control of education passed to the Minister of Education. This brought about a change in the administration of education for the Zulus as well. The Inspector of Native Education, who had hitherto reported to the Council, now became a subordinate officer under the Superintendent of Education. An extract from the report of the Inspector in 1899 states:

"When I urged them (natives) to send their children to school, the reply I got was: 'Our chiefs are the mouthpiece of the Government to us; we have not been told by them to send our children, and until we are told we shall not send them.'" (Pells: 1938, p. 64).

This remark is interesting in the light of the present day situation where a space can hardly be found for the children who are sent to school. In 1894 the Church of Scotland obtained permission to work in the Bulwer area and founded a mission station called Polela. Here the Rev. W. Moodey opened a primary school for boys. Later an industrial school for boys, and domestic science courses for girls were added and hostels were opened. In 1899 the Rev. J.L. Dube, a Zulu who had been inspired by Negro Institutions which he had visited in the United States, founded a school called Ohlange Institution where he could put into practice his theory of education to develop the head, the hand and the heart.

The South Africa Act (1909), Article 85, delegated primary and secondary education to the Provinces. Native education thus became a branch of the Education Departments of the Provincial Administrations.

2.4. PROGRESS BETWEEN 1910 AND 1954

After the coming into being of the Union of South Africa in 1910, the Superintendent of Education in Natal had on his staff a specialist officer called the Chief Inspector of Native Education. The function of this officer was to take charge of administrative work relating to native education (Pells: 1934, p. 118). A special board, chiefly representing the missions which controlled schools, was established to advise the Department. This was called the Native Education Advisory Board (Behr & MacMillan: 1971, p. 382).

Pells (1934, pp. 9, 115) reports that there was rapid expansion after Union. With a contribution from the Union Treasury far in excess of its average revenue, a phenomenal increase in the amount spent on education resulted. Coloured and native pupils increased from 18 000 to 32 000 between 1910 and 1920. The Phelps-Stokes African Education Commission in 1922 reported:

"While the Natal system of education for the natives is second to that of the Cape Province in the liberality of financial support, it is superior in general organisation, effectiveness and adaptation to the real needs of the native people ..." (Pells: 1934, p. 142).

In 1918 Dr C.T. Loram became the Chief Inspector of Native Education, and within a short time he brought about many changes like a revised teachers' training course, a revised classification of schools, a clearer definition of the aims of schools, a quarterly journal for the teachers, the appointment of organisers for instruction in handicrafts and the establishment of state Bantu schools. The period

after 1920 became one of consolidation and the study of the Zulu language received attention (Behr & MacMillan: 1971, p. 389).

An important occurrence is that in 1924 the provinces sought to impose a provincial Native Tax to meet liabilities in respect of native schools. Parliament would not allow this. Instead it relieved the provinces of the liability of financing native education. A new state account was created called the Native Development Account. A sum of £340 000 per annum was paid into this account and was supplemented by one fifth of the yield of a new tax called the Native General Tax or Poll Tax. By fixing the basic grant at the sum spent by the provinces in 1924, Parliament inaugurated a period of stagnation. The Native taxation did not realise anything like the sum estimated.

By 1940, one in every 1 000 native children received a fair elementary education. Native Education was, therefore, failing to make the native literate. Pells (1934, p. 140) says:

"... nor can it succeed until a far greater sum is made available for native education. The annual expenditure on the education of White children, 354 000 in number during 1930 - 40 was £6 500 000 per annum; on that of 283 000 native children it was £600 000 per annum."

In short, the quality of education in African schools remained low.

2.5. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE REPORT OF THE EISELEN COMMISSION

A Commission under the chairmanship of Dr W.W.M. Eiselen was appointed on the 19th of January 1949 to inquire into all aspects of Bantu Education (Lubbe: 1969, p. 3). In its report, the Commission emphasised the important functional role of the school as a dynamic means of leading the Bantu to a healthy recognition of their own worth and the worth

of their spiritual endowments. This report was the basis for the Bantu Education Act, No. 47 of 1953.

According to this Commission, the main objection to the system of African education prevailing prior to 1954, was the way in which schools were separated from the communities they had to serve. Therefore, the first task of this Eiselen Commission, as stated in paragraph 1046 of the report, was to find an answer to the questions: "What is the purpose of Bantu education? Are the schools contributing to the solution of social and economic problems?"

It must be emphasised here that up to 1954, parents had little or no say in school affairs. To a large extent the Africans regarded the church and the school as foreign institutions that were imposed on them from outside. These institutions introduced into tribal life elements that were in conflict with the established social order. Under a section dealing with curriculum, it will be pointed out that the content and manner of presenting some school subjects might have been unsuitable to the children because this curriculum did not grow from the physical, social and intellectual environment of the children. That is why it is necessary to describe some factors which influence the quality of school work so that a recognition of these factors may lead to a discovery of an effective manner of presenting the curriculum to the pupils.

The Eiselen Commission found that the then existing schools for the African children were providing education for a relatively small proportion of a backward population; that the rate of elimination at an early age was very high. The Commissioners also found that the standard of achievement in the schools as measured by examinations and achievement tests was very low (Report of the Commission on Native Education, 1949 - 1951, pp. 95 - 101). This Commission also found that the general orientation of the school was too academic because, for those pupils who proceeded beyond the

primary school stage, an academic certificate promised a much more attractive economic future than anything else. A uniform policy did not exist because, on the one hand there were numerous missionary societies, each going its own way, and on the other hand each Province had its own syllabus and policy. As a result there was little co-ordination among all the individuals who were trying to achieve the same purpose. One of the findings of the Commissioners, which led to some of their recommendations (which will be mentioned in the next paragraph), was that the aims of African education up to then were vague and not yet clearly formulated.

The recommendations of the Eiselen Commission (Par. 1052) can be regarded as a watershed for the education of the African people from 1954 to the present. From the recommendations which they made, we quote only two which have most relevance to this present study:

"Since we conceive education not as an end in itself but as a means to the general development of the Bantu, it is essential that both a general development plan and the necessary governmental machinery to carry it out should be called into being as soon as possible."
(Eiselen Report, paragraph 1052 (a)).

This recommendation is important because it emphasised the socio-pedagogic approach to African education as has been stated in chapter 1, of the present study. It also led to a principle of centralisation where all the educational services were centralised in one Department of Bantu Education according to the development that will be described in the coming paragraphs.

The following recommendation is also important because it led to a principle of decentralisation as the general development of the various African ethnic groups took place:

"In order to secure the active participation of the Bantu in the solution of local problems, it is recommended that Bantu Local Authorities be set up in the reserves and urban areas. The intention is that these bodies should in course of time evolve into local government units charged with the administration of all local services including education." (Eiselen Report, 1949 - 1951, Par. 1052)

These two principles emanating from the recommendations of the Eiselen Commission will now be discussed.

2.6. PROGRESS FROM 1954 TO THE PRESENT (1974)

2.6.1. Centralisation of educational services

As a result of the Bantu Education Act, the Central Government took over control of all educational services for the Africans from the Provincial Administrations with effect from the 1st of January 1954. The responsibility for Bantu Education was delegated to the Department of Native Affairs of which it formed a division. From 1954 onwards there followed a period of rapid expansion in enrolment and provision of educational services. Prof. W.M. Kgware (1967, p. 54) states:

"Most South Africans ... agree that the Bantu Education Act of 1953 introduced such far-reaching changes in the theory and practice of the education of the Bantu in South Africa that there is justification in regarding the past ten years as a decade of revolution."

Then he discusses some of the far reaching changes as the provision for the active participation of parents, local control of schools by school committees and school boards, and the establishment of the Advisory Board of Bantu Education, the appointment of Bantu school inspectors and the re-organisation of schools and classifying them according to control as well as according to grade of work done. (See TABLE 3 for classification.

As one of the most important objects of the Bantu Education Act was to provide for the active participation by the community itself, mission schools had to be converted into government-aided community schools. This re-organisation ensured uniformity in aims, content and method. Of the 44 religious societies controlling schools before 1954, only two (namely Roman Catholic and The Seventh Day Adventist)

chose to retain full control. These became private unaided Church schools. Community schools were subsidised by the Department of Bantu Education in respect of the teachers' salaries, equipment and the supply of certain books, and the erection of buildings.

Groups of community schools, each of which catered for a particular language group in a specific area, were controlled by a school board consisting of ten members. Some were nominated by the local authority and others were nominated by the Department, on the grounds of their special experience and knowledge, to represent religious and other interests. About 70% of all aided schools fell into this category and accommodated four-fifths of the school population. The following table (see Table 2, p. 93 and Table 3, pp. 69 - 70 of the 1968 Annual Report of the Department of Bantu Education) shows the number of school boards and committee boards with powers of a school board; and the number of schools and teachers and pupils which were under the control of these boards in the various regions into which the Republic of South Africa was divided for purposes of Bantu Education. This is to show the extent of involvement of the African parents in the education of their children. The year 1968 is chosen because after that the various African ethnic groups started to decentralise their education departments as they attained a measure of self-determination. The Transkei is not included in these figures because it established its own Department of Education in 1963.

TABLE 2: NUMBER OF AFRICAN SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS CONTROLLED BY SCHOOL BOARDS IN 1968

REGION	NUMBER OF SCHOOL BOARDS	NO. OF SCHOOLS	NO. OF TEACHERS	NO. OF PUPILS
N. Transvaal	96	1 242	6 560	400 017
S. Transvaal	94	825	7 885	461 653
Orange Free State	102	366	2 227	159 886
Natal	92	1 228	5 787	358 974
Ciskei	129	741	3 788	239 320
TOTALS	513	4 402	26 244	1 619 850

Although no attempt is made here to compare the various provinces, it should be noted here that whereas Natal is the smallest of all the provinces, it had a number of school boards, schools and teachers almost out of proportion to its geographical size. Incidentally the Zulu ethnic group which is concentrated in Natal is the largest single group.

Table 3 which follows shows the distribution of pupils according to standard and type of school attended in the whole Republic of South Africa. The table reveals the following facts:

- (a) The manner in which classes are divided. The lower primary school consists of the first four classes, i.e. sub-standard A to standard II. The higher primary school consists of classes from standard III to standard VI. (Note that this will change in 1976 when the 12-year structure comes into operation in African schools as well). At present (1974), it means a primary school for Africans consists of eight classes, standard six is the highest class. Forms I, II and III (up to 1973) constituted the Junior secondary school. In the choice of sample for empirical study the highest class in the primary school and the highest class in the Junior secondary school were chosen (See paragraph 5.2.).
- (b) The type of school according to control,
- (c) The proportion of the school population controlled by parents in community schools to that controlled by other bodies.

From the figures displayed in Table 3, it is noted that 1 429 397 pupils or 70,70% of the grand total of 2 021 424 pupils were in the lower primary school. 502 159 or 24,85% of the grand total were in the higher primary classes. This means 95,55% of the pupils were in the primary school in 1968 (Department of Bantu Education: Annual Report, 1968, p. 71).

TABLE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO TYPE OF SCHOOL AND CLASSES - 1968

Standard	Gov't	Community	Farm	Mine	Factory	Hospital	Scheduled	Private	Totals
S.S.A.	5 874	379 714	95 533	4 162	1 130	812	1 105	19 349	507 679
S.S.B.	4 462	290 821	56 590	3 140	859	201	656	14 412	371 141
Std I	3 789	254 315	43 521	2 556	645	170	521	12 915	318 432
Std II	2 618	189 314	27 773	1 967	486	94	356	9 537	232 145
Std III	2 338	151 481	15 169	1 568	464	60	235	7 702	179 017
Std IV	1 708	112 575	9 092	1 159	253	53	205	5 652	130 697
Std V	1 550	11 775	3 633	733	172	23	114	4 296	102 296
Std VI	1 533	81 848	2 216	590	142	13	76	3 731	90 149
Form I	2 802	31 466	-	-	-	-	-	1 337	35 605
Form II	3 019	21 133	-	-	-	-	-	1 024	25 176
Form III	2 159	13 078	-	-	-	-	-	659	15 896
Form IV	1 860	1 378	-	-	-	-	-	287	3 526
Form V	1 030	778	-	-	-	-	-	229	2 037
Technical Sec	518	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	518
Technical Training	95	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	95
Trade Tr.	1 427	85	-	-	-	-	-	441	1 953
Teacher Tr.	4 864	89	-	-	-	-	-	110	5 063
TOTALS	41 646	1 619 850	253 527	15 875	4 151	1 426	3 268	81 681	2 021 424

The following table (see Table 1.4.1. on pp. 118 & 119 of the 1973 Annual Report, of the Department of Bantu Education) shows the figures five years after 1968.

TABLE 4: DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO CLASSES IN 1973

YEAR	S.S.A.	S.S.B.	Std I	Std II	TOTAL for Lower Primary		
1973	728 772	551 095	503 396	383 026	2 166 289		
	Std III	Std IV	Std V	Std VI	TOTAL for Higher Primary		
1973	320 606	242 500	194 585	181 455	939 146		
	TOTAL FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS				3 105 435		
	FORM I	FORM II	FORM III	FORM IV	FORM V	TOTAL for Secondary	
1973	70 711	56 098	37 175	11 344	5 736	181 064	
	Teacher Training	Trade Training	Theological	Special	Night	Un class.	TOTAL
1973	11 137	4 823	17	1 684	7 734	389	25 789
	GRAND TOTAL FOR ALL CLASSES				3 312 283		

From the above figures we note an improvement over the 1968 figures. In 1973, 65,40% pupils were in the lower primary classes. 28, 35% were in the higher primary classes. This means 93,75% were in the primary school.

This was the position in 1973 if we consider the whole of the Republic of South Africa. It is necessary to end up

this historical sketch with the idea of decentralisation.

2.6.2. Decentralisation of Administration

Concurrent with centralisation of control steps were taken for the reverse process of decentralisation of administration. The Eiselen Commission proposed the division of the Department into six regional units "in order to secure adequate administrative decentralisation and to group together as far as possible homogeneous elements of the population" (Eiselen Commission: par. 1052 (f), p. 164).

In 1967 the Minister of Bantu Education confirmed the intention of the government "to place responsibility for the administration of education increasingly in the hands of the territorial authorities" (Duminy: 1967, p. xiii).

As a result of the development of the Bantu Homelands, decentralisation of educational control took another step forward. The Transkei Education Act of 1963 provided that control of education be transferred to the Transkei Legislative Assembly. The other Homelands followed in succession. The following ethnic groups had each a Legislative Assembly of its own: Xhosa (Ciskei), Tswana (Bophuthatswana), Northern Sotho (Lebowa), Southern Sotho (Qwaqwa), Tsonga (Gazankulu), Venda (Vendaland), Zulu (KwaZulu).

The KwaZulu Homeland, with which we are concerned in this study, established its own Territorial Authority on the 11th of June 1970. When in 1972 an Education Department was established in KwaZulu the re-organisation of educational services was completed.

The following table shows the number of schools, teachers and pupils in KwaZulu and in the Natal region which also serves Zulu speaking children (Annual Report: 1974 (RP 45/1975), pp. 14, 15, 24):

TABLE 5: SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS IN KWAZULU AND NATAL
IN 1974

1. SCHOOLS	Number in	
	KwaZulu	Natal
Primary	1 448	932
Secondary	108	31
Teacher Training	4	2
Vocational & Technical	8	3
Night and/or Special	9	10
TOTALS	1 577	978
2. TEACHERS	9 588	3 844
3. PUPILS	568 352	197 509

2.7. RESUMÉ

This historical survey has sketched the origins and developments of schooling for the Africans in general in South Africa, and for the Zulu-speaking Africans in Natal in particular. The fact that schooling was imposed from outside, and did not grow from within the community created a host of problems of a social, cultural, economic and even of a political nature. Inherent in this overall atmosphere grew up a number of factors which affected the quality of teaching in African schools. The historical development of African education can be categorised into six stages:

- (a) Purely missionary responsibility and control (from 1799 in the Cape and 1835 in Natal)
- (b) Recognition and aid by the state (from 1850)
- (c) Joint control by the Department of Native Affairs and the Provinces (1926 - 1945)

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CHAPTER 3

A DESCRIPTION OF SOME FACTORS OR PROBLEMS THAT
INFLUENCE THE QUALITY OF TEACHING IN AFRICAN
SCHOOLS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Before one can proceed to investigate the factors which influence the quality of anything, one must have a standard of this quality so that one can determine whether this standard or criterion has been affected by any factor. The concept "quality" has been described in chapter 1, paragraph 1.2.3. Once this quality is known and precisely defined, "no parent, no teacher, no citizen, no business or industry and no public official can rest while the erosion of this quality continues ..." (World Year Book of Education; 1970, p. 138).

Since we are dealing with education, it is necessary to have a pedagogical criterion or generally valid educational standards by which any educational practice can be judged or approved or rejected as educationally unsound or unpedagogical. For this criterion to be objectively valid it should not be restricted to any particular culture or society but must be universally and generally valid. This is not to deny that any system of education is culturally bound. It stands to reason that critical standards and norms derived from the requirements and customs of one country or community cannot be applied to judge persons brought up and educated on the basis of a different culture. However, all societies or communities aim at producing a MATURE adult although the idea or image of maturity may vary from culture to culture. The science of education or pedagogics must look for inter-cultural or cross-cultural objective standards by which an individual's adulthood may be judged. We shall not define the idea of adulthood. We only wish to state that education

may be considered EFFECTIVE if it succeeds in leading a child towards adulthood and maturity by:

- (a) helping him to learn to choose between alternatives.
Since a person can only reach adulthood in one cultural-historical setting he can become a fully integrated and mature personality with regard to principles and demands of a particular way of life. The concept of right and wrong is relative to a culture. A mature person should have been led to choose between right and wrong as embodied in the norms of his society;
- (b) leading the child to experience happiness in unfolding and developing his capacities;
- (c) aiding him to acquire an image of his world which is appropriate for his milieu;
- (d) preparing him for remunerative work. This includes relaxation needed for the full realisation of one's potentialities and utilisation of one's capacities.

This, then, briefly is the QUALITY we are aiming at in education. We now want to identify and isolate FACTORS which affect this quality adversely.

3.2. SOME FACTORS ON THE MACROSCOPIC LEVEL

In this chapter we shall merely touch on some factors on a general societal level in order to establish the fact that the personal level, as described in chapter 4, is determined by these factors. It is also necessary to mention that the factors at the macroscopic or societal level are intertwined with those at the microscopic or personal level and cannot be separated except for purposes of discussion.

3.2.1. Social Factors

The position that a person occupies in society is assigned to him according to two main criteria. Kinloch (1972) classifies them as: (i) hereditary characteristics e.g. sex,

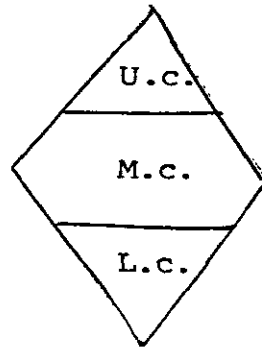
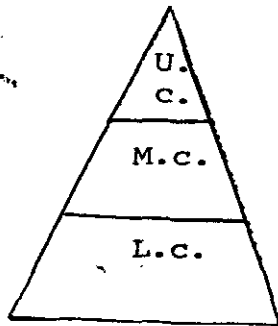
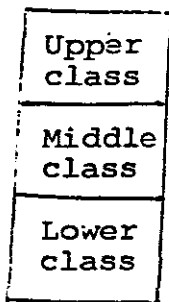
race, age, and (ii) achieved c
tional qualifications. In South
(1972: p. 1) race is the determini.
tutions open to each group remain res
basis, the stratification system remain.
stable structure ... the privileged class
their advantages to improve their position
while the fate of the lower classes continues
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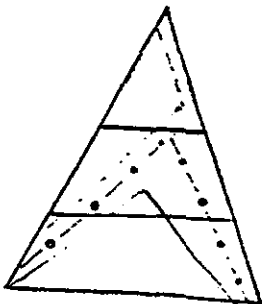
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"Such deprivation relates to differences in l.
expectancy, mental disorders and their treatme
differential educational opportunity as well as
the administration of justice and the right to
legal protection." (Kinloch: 1972, p. 48).

According to Kinloch (1972), stratification refers to
the shape of the social structure as determined by the pro-
portion of the various classes, viz. lower, middle and
upper classes where there may be equal proportions, triangle
or diamond shaped:



The stratification structure in South Africa may be
represented as follows: (Kinloch: 1972, p. 50).



Key

- = Whites
- - - - = Coloured & Asiatics
- = Bantu (i.e. Africans)

Thus, the quality of education for Africans is deter-
mined conclusively by the social stratification. An African
child, for instance, who is gifted in music cannot develop

this potential because he belongs to a social class and stratum that does not provide for such schools. The social stratification and legislation obviously leads to an occupational structure where the internal class differentiation of Africans is very limited.

The following comparisons illustrate this point (Kinloch: 1972, p. 150):

TABLE 6: THE OCCUPATIONAL CLASS STRUCTURE BY RACE IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1960.

Class	Whites	Asiatics	Coloureds	Africans
Upper class	12,28%	4,82%	2,81%	1,34%
Middle class	38,56%	30,98%	4,22%	1,49%
Lower class	49,17%	64,19%	92,97%	97,16%
TOTAL	1 151 000	125 000	554 000	3 889 000

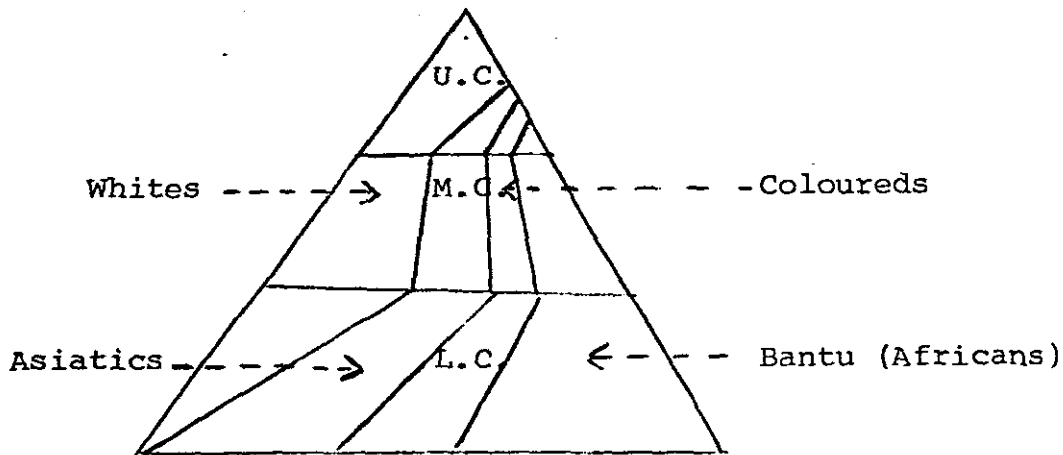
Where Upper class represents professional and managerial class.

Middle class represents administrative, clerical and sales.

Lower class represents farming, mining, transport and services.

Kinloch gives percentages for the various classes to facilitate comparisons, but he gives the total numbers involved in each case in order to show the population involved. Even this class representation does not tell the whole story because people doing the same job and qualified equally do not get the same pay. An example may be taken from the teaching profession. Franz E. Auerbach calculated in 1972 (Horrell: 1974, pp. 306 & 313) that on average African teachers then earned 45% of the amounts paid to Whites with similar qualifications, employed in similar posts; while Coloured and Indian teachers were earning 65% of the amounts earned by Whites with similar qualifications, employed in similar posts.

The shape of the South African society can be represented as follows (Kinloch: 1972, p. 150):



3.2.2. Economic conditions

As a result of the social and political position in the country, economic conditions are also grim and these also affect the quality of education in African schools. Two results of these economic conditions will be described briefly:

3.2.2.1. The poverty datum line

According to Prof. Edward Batson (Horrell: 1974, p. 197), the poverty datum line is an indication of the lowest possible cost of maintaining a household. This takes account in the short run only of selected items including food, clothing, rent, transport for wage earners, fuel and light, and cleaning material to maintain a household in good health by Western standards. It is not an adequate measure of human needs. Batson concluded that a family could meet its actual needs and utilise its budget efficiently only when the family income exceeded the poverty datum line by 50%. This adjusted figure is known as the Minimum Effective Level (MEL). In June, 1973, the PDL in Durban for an African family of 5, 2 persons was R97,67, and the MEL was R147,21 (P.N. Pillay: 1973, p. 30). These figures are given in order to compare them with the wages shown in the next paragraph so that the extent of poverty can be deduced.

In 1973, the Productivity and Wage Association instituted a programme called "Operation Progress" under the auspices of the National Development and Management Foundation (NDMF). This survey redefined job categories into six, ranging from number 1, jobs involving a few simple highly repetitive tasks through to number six for artisans who have served a recognised apprenticeship. Obviously the Africans fill the lowest categories and earn low wages as represented in the following table (A Survey of Race Relations in South Africa: January, 1974, p. 203):

TABLE 7: AVERAGE WAGES: AFRICAN MEN, MARCH 1973

GRADE	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTAL
AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE	R13,46	R16,14	R18,16	R22,21	R25,47	R32,06	
TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	109 278	46 643	28 789	13 436	5 554	2 482	206 182

These figures indicate that a great majority of Africans (i.e. those who belong to the first four categories) earn below the poverty datum line. The redeeming argument is that, of course, not all these employees have to support a family of 5,2 persons. In the questionnaire designed for empirical study, an item will be included to reveal the size of African families of pupils included in the present research.

3.2.2.2. Malnutrition

Dr J.F. Potgieter (1965) stated that 75 - 85% of African families in Pretoria had an income lower than the minimum level needed for basic expenses, and he concluded that at least 80% of African school-going children suffer from malnutrition or undernutrition as a result.

Herbert G. Birch and Joan Gussow (1970) in their scholarly analysis of the relationship of poverty and educational failure clearly demonstrate that economic conditions and nutritional factors are determiners of a child's educational progress. It is stated that children who live in poverty, are not only physically weakened but intellectually depressed. Poor children are exposed to poor food, poor sanitation, poor housing and poor medical care. The central thesis of the authors is that to be poor is to be assailed by a whole range of physical conditions which endanger life, growth and health. As a result mental development and educational growth are retarded.

3.2.3. Financial Provision for Education

An up-to-date building programme of schools and classrooms, a proper supply of school equipment and teaching aids and an adequate supply of contented, well-paid teachers depend on the financial provision made by the state.

Until 1946 the financing of Bantu education was the responsibility of the Minister of Native Affairs, but in that year it was transferred to the Minister of Education, Arts and Science. In 1956 the contribution from the treasury was pegged at R13 million in terms of Section Twenty (1) (a) of Act No. 23 of 1956. To this R13 million was added four-fifths of the General Native Tax. However, in terms of section 14 of Act No. 83 of 1963 the Bantu Education Account was credited from the 1st of April, 1963 with a full tax that was collected according to the Bantu Taxation and Development Act of 1925 (Act No. 41 of 1925) (Lubbe: 1969, p. 93).

Horrell (1973, p. 70) reports that between 1960 and 1971 the state adopted various measures to augment the funds available, paying some expenses from other accounts, devoting the total proceeds of African taxation to education, raising taxes and making loans. Later it made grants to the Bantu Education Account from the country's general revenue. Finally in 1972, the Bantu Education Account was

abolished and certain large outstanding loans it owed to the state were written off. The Department of Bantu Education is now financed from the country's general revenue, in the same way as are the other government departments.

A comparison of the following figures relating to National Expenditure on education for all the racial groups in South Africa and the differential per capita costs, and the enrolment figures for the four racial groups, will indicate clearly the extent to which the financial provision falls short of the amount necessary to maintain a proper quality of education in African schools.

The following table is reproduced from Horrel & Horner: 1974, pp. 292/93:

TABLE 8 : NATIONAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA, 1972.

1971 - 72		Amount in R-million	Enrolment		
The Provinces (White education)		284,6	890 595 (1972)		
Department of National Education (mainly White)		85,8			
Other Gov't Dep't (All races)		5,4			
Department of Coloured Relations and Rehoboth Affairs		51,0	549 170 (1972)		
Department of Indian Affairs		23,8	172 142 (1972)		
Department of Bantu Education		41,7	3 079 507 (1972)		
Homeland Governments		28,0			
<u>PER CAPITA COSTS</u>					
Racial Group	Year	Primary School Pupils	Secondary School Pupils	General Average	
Whites	1971 - 2	R366,00	R624,00	R461,00	
Indians	1972	R112,49	R155,74	R124,40	
Coloureds	1972	R 91,04	R120,18	R 94,41	
Africans	1971 - 2	R 20,64	R112,71	R 25,31	

However, the amounts of money available increased substantially since 1972. Table 10 shows the amounts spent (Annual Report: 1974, p. 136). In this table South West Africa is excluded. The amounts also do not include the expenditure on university education. Capital expenditure for which provision is made on LOAN vote N: Bantu Administration and Development, is also not included in the figures shown in Table 10 (Annual Report: 1974, p. 100).

TABLE 9 : EXPENDITURE ON BANTU EDUCATION, 1960 - 1974/75

YEAR	Department of Bantu Education	Homelands' Departments of Education & Culture	TOTAL
1960/61	R18 852 514	-----	R 18 852 514
1964/65	R23 455 757	-----	R 23 455 757
1969/70	R41 782 963	-----	R 41 782 963
1972/73	R27 806 000	R40 514 300	R 86 058 300
1974/75	R51 002 000	R80 464 000	R131 466 000

3.2.4. Relationship between this study and socio-economic conditions in Kwazulu

It has already been shown that education was introduced to the Africans by missionaries from Europe. Prior to the 19th century in Europe, the primary educational institutions were the family and the church. Family education took place at an individual level. It consisted of preparing the child to fit into a well defined cultural and economic pattern. In the traditional education of the Zulus young boys and girls were educated to fit into well defined roles in society (cf. 2.1.2.).

In Europe the type of education which evolved as a result of the influence of the church, consisted of well defined and codified information on the attributes of God, the difference between good and evil and proper earthly behaviour for attaining a happy life hereafter. The upper class education, both family and religious, was largely concerned with the techniques of maintaining the power of

the nobility, the priesthood and a rising commercial bourgeoisie. This is the type of educational practice that was transplanted into African education.

However, in Europe when education was secularised, schools were charged with the task of preparing the young not only for future economic or vocational success, but also for effective participation in public life as intelligent citizens.

On approaching independence the three High Commission Territories of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland sent a request to UNESCO for a mission to examine the existing provision for education in the territories and to make suggestions for planning further developments. Education was to be regarded in relation to economic and social objectives. To be able to do this, the various "Bantu Homelands" in general and the "state" of KwaZulu in particular must begin to attend to the improvement of the quality of education.

Writing in The Natal Mercury of the 20th January 1971 Lawrence Morgan tells how the scale of the African employment problem has suddenly been recognised as far greater than previously recognised or estimated. He said Natal Zulus are to get the greatest concentration of industry of all South Africa's "Homelands". The creation of sufficient jobs to ensure the physical survival of the local population and security for their neighbours has become the most crucial challenge confronting the world's underdeveloped regions. The urgent need of economic planning for African areas has become the cornerstone of official policy.

The "White Paper on the Report by the Interdepartmental Committee on the Decentralisation of Industry" issued by the Department of Industries states in paragraph 3 on p. 2 that in formulating a decentralisation policy, the needs with respect to economic growth of the various national groups in their geographical areas, must be taken into consideration.

On page 15, it states: "It is ... government policy that the non-White national groups should in their own areas, and for the purpose of serving their own peoples, to an increasing extent, undertake work of a more advanced nature. The border areas of Newcastle, Ladysmith/Colenso, Richard's Bay and a growth point in the Homeland, of Sithebe are considered to be reservations of the Zulu national group". Other growth points envisaged are Nguthu, Mahlabathini and Mondlo.

A paper delivered by E.G. Malherbe at the 35th Annual Council Meeting of the South African Institute of Race Relations, entitled "Manpower Training: Educational Requirements for Economic Expansion" in January, 1965, established a very definite relationship between the economic situation and educational requirements. On page 2, he says: "Unless our educational system is stepped up so as to use every ounce of human talent available amongst all the races that comprise this country, I am sure that the rapid upward trend which we have experienced in our economy during the last decade will be slowed down if not flattened out to a plateau in the foreseeable future". Malherbe then continues to give the percentage of persons engaged in professional, managerial and technical occupations to the economically active population as follows: Whites = 18,5%; Asiatics = 13,2%; Coloureds = 3,4% and Africans = 1,7%. These figures reveal the vast untapped sources of manpower in the non-White sections of the South African population. What is more important to note is that the percentages vary almost exactly according to the educational status of the various racial groups as reflected by the percentages proceeding beyond the primary section of education. The following comparisons make this clear (Horrell: 1974, pp. 301, 311, 316 and 320):

TABLE 10: ENROLMENT FIGURES OF THE VARIOUS RACIAL GROUPS IN SOUTH AFRICA IN 1972

CLASS	AFRICANS 1972	COLOUREDS 1972	INDIANS 1972	WHITES 1972
Sub A	687 990 (22,34%)	104 092 (18,95%)	20 728 (12,04%)	
Std II	359 339 11,67%	56 649 12,14%	17 161 9,97%	
Std V	176 109 5,72%	38 524 7,01%	16 863 9,80%	
Std VI	161 472 5,24%			
Total for Primary School	861 726 94,87%	482 999 87,95%	124 308 72,22%	495 570 55,6%
Total for Junior Secondary	143 063 4,65%	58 922 10,73%	37 820 21,97%	
Total for Senior Secondary	14 723 0,48%	7 249 1,32%	9 579 5,56%	234 316 26,4%

In view of the above statements, we can state that this study attempts to reveal the urgency of the requirements to establish the factors which affect the quality of teaching in African schools.

3.3. SOME PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE SCHOOL SITUATION

3.3.1. A brief evaluation of the nature and content of the present curriculum

3.3.1.1. Criteria for evaluation

In considering the nature and content of a curriculum,

it is necessary to keep in mind the goals of a particular society, as well as of the individuals who constitute that society. The socio-pedagogic approach adopted in this investigation will be applied in dealing with the curriculum. The Eiselen Commission Report (1949 - 51, par. 1052 (g)) expresses this idea as follows:

"The general approach of the Commission to problems of curricula is that as soon as the general development plan has been satisfactorily drawn up, the educational authorities will have a clear picture of the types of individuals they will be called upon to produce."

After recommending a restructuring of classes into a four-year lower primary school course, a further four-year higher primary school course, a five-year secondary school course and a post-matriculation and university education, the Commissioners who made the above statement recommended that the lower primary school course should be complete and worthwhile in itself, but also making provision for those children who wished to proceed to higher stages in the school system (Eiselen Commission Report: 1949 - 51, p. 146).

J.S. Hill (1974, p. 13) mentions three aspects of the curriculum as

- (a) "inhoudelik (leerervaring)"
- (b) "sosio-pedagogiese (inskakeling by gemeenskap)"
- (c) "psigo-pedagogiese (leer, dink, begryp)"

He continues to define a curriculum as (p. 20) follows:

"Die kurrikulum is 'n wetenskaplik-verantwoordbaar opgestelde dokument wat geselekteerde, geordende en geëvalueerde inhoud asook sodanige didaktiese oorwegings insluit wat instrumenteel is tot die verwesenliking van die daarin gestelde doelstellings in die skoolse didakties-pedagogiese situasie".

On page 307, J.S. Hill reviews certain criteria for the selection and arrangement of curriculum content. A few are mentioned here because they provide a yardstick by which to evaluate the present curriculum in African schools:

- "(a) Does the content represent or advance the ideal culture aspired by the community?
- (b) Is it possible that the general aims of education as interpreted by a community, can be realised by the teaching of this particular content?
- (c) Is the content such that he who masters it acquires identity and quality in accordance with the values ranking highest in the particular view of life subscribed to by members of the community to which he belongs?"

G.W. Bassett (1970, p. 7) states that educational objectives exist at three levels which correspond to societal, system or strategic and institutional or tactical levels. Since this study emphasises the societal level, the three criteria mentioned above will suffice. However, acknowledgement is made of the fact that criteria on the institutional level would complete the picture in evaluating a curriculum.

The decision to consider and evaluate the present curriculum in African schools on a societal level is further supported by what G.W. Bassett (1970, p.24) says when he quotes Stratemeyer's "persistent life situations" as a basis for curriculum development. These are:

- (i) "growth in health, intellectual power, moral choice, aesthetic expression and appreciation."
- (ii) "growth in social participation, person to person relationships, group membership, etc."
- (iii) "growth in ability to deal with environmental factors and forces, natural phenomena, technological resources, economic, social and political structures..."

3.3.1.2. Evaluation of the Lower Primary school course, (7 - 10 years of age)

The lower primary concentrates on the basic skills of reading, writing and calculating. English and Afrikaans, which are foreign European languages are taught on a purely utilitarian basis as a medium of oral expression of thought.

An interest in the soil and in the observation of natural phenomena is stimulated. Recreational subjects emphasising self-activity are taught. Practical hygiene as well as the basic tenets of religion presented through bible stories are taught. Subjects listed in the syllabus are: Afrikaans, English, Zulu, environmental studies, nature studies, health, religious instruction, music and singing, physical training and games, arts and crafts and gardening.

In an attempt to make primary schooling a complete education for those not passing into the secondary school, the curriculum has been overloaded with subjects. Considering that over 70% of the pupils leave school at this stage (see paragraph 3.3.4.) it might be necessary to introduce them into a wide variety of subjects.

3.3.1.3. Criticism of some particular subjects

(a) Official languages

The introduction of two foreign languages at an early age might confuse the pupils. To make matters worse, pupils, particularly in rural areas seldom, if ever, hear these languages outside the classroom. The large numbers handled by one teacher who in some cases is either poorly qualified or not qualified at all, make the teaching of these languages very ineffective indeed.

(b) Gardening

This subject has an educational value in that it brings the pupil into close contact with nature, and provides a most valuable form of nature study. When methodically carried out, gardening provides exercises in hand-and-eye training. Work in the garden tends to kill the ridiculous idea prevalent in some quarters that it is degrading for an educated person to perform manual labour. A visit to the garden forms a useful change from the more formal work of the school and provides a healthy exercise.

Nature study has a direct bearing on the work done in the garden; geography and drawing can be correlated with gardening. Arithmetic can be made interesting by relating problems to gardening. If the teaching of gardening can be transferred to the homes of the children, the urgent need for fresh vegetables can be satisfied.

A criticism is that gardening in areas and in schools where the requisite conditions for success are absent, does not foster love for the dignity of labour and the love of the soil. On the socio-economic level, Africans realise that only a small percentage of children will have access to agricultural allotments, and that even a smaller percentage will be able to make a livelihood on the very limited size of land available. An attitude of scepticism and indifference towards gardening has developed in both teachers and pupils (Eiselen Commission Report: 1949 - 51, paragraphs 719 - 726).

(c) Religious Instruction

The Bible lessons which form the basis of moral lessons and the development of character, emphasise the love of God and neighbour. If the ethical values and mutual relationship between man and man were stressed sufficiently, this would be a very valuable subject. The Departmental syllabus stipulates that no denominational doctrines are to be taught in schools. And a parent may withdraw his child from attending lessons in religious instructions.

(d) Handwork

While the educational value of handwork is sometimes stated as giving expression to a creative urge; character formation; training of the eye and the hand, and producing crafts for their possible economic value, parents and teachers are sceptical about this subject. They realise that owing to contact with western culture with its factories and mass production, the production of handicrafts can never be economic. Again large classes prevent even enthusiastic teachers from devoting the necessary attention to indivi-

dual children. In many urban areas there is simply no material that can be used as raw material for handwork.

3.3.1.4. Evaluation of the Higher primary school course (11 - 14 years)

The subjects in the lower primary school are developed in content and manner of presentation. Pupils develop interest in geography and history. The remarks made in the case of the lower primary school apply here as well.

3.3.1.5. Evaluation of the Secondary school (15 - 19 years)

The secondary school course provides for three main directions in African schools. First, there is a purely academic course consisting of the two official languages i.e. English and Afrikaans, the mother tongue, viz. Zulu in Natal, general science, social studies, mathematics and a practical subject. In addition to these seven examination subjects, there are the following three non-examination subjects: religious instruction, music and singing and physical training.

Secondly, there is a commercial direction, where in addition to the three languages and social studies pupils do typing, commerce (business economics) or economics as well as the three non-examination subjects.

The third is a vocational or technical direction where pupils choose from a wide variety of subjects of a technical and/or vocational nature.

The first three years of secondary education (up to 1973) end with a Junior Certificate. Since 1974 this has been known as Form III and is the first class of the senior secondary school course which also lasts for three years. The senior secondary school course is based on the core syllabus issued by the Joint Matriculation Board for all the Education Departments in South Africa.

The content and nature of the secondary school course satisfy the criteria for a good curriculum except for the fact that it is overloaded with three compulsory languages. This, of course, is a socio-economic necessity. Africans must know the two official languages as well as their own language.

3.3.1.6. General evaluation

It is difficult to evaluate a curriculum in a study like this because of space. The main problem, however, is expressed clearly by Taba (1964, p. 263):

"Today the problem of a rational basis for selecting curriculum content is especially crucial for several reasons. First, because of the ferment in education, proposals for what to include in the curriculum or to exclude from it emanate from a variety of sources based on a variety of considerations some of which are either insufficient, irrational or both. Educators themselves seem to be confused about the criteria by which to decide what the content of a curriculum should be or the way in which learning should be organised and managed. Second, the explosion of knowledge has made the classical simplicity of school subjects impossible ..."

In African schools the problem of curriculum is intertwined with the problems of the medium of instruction and staffing. These problems will be discussed briefly hereunder.

3.3.2. Medium of Instruction

The problem of the medium of instruction has been present in African education since the early days of the missionaries. In Natal, before 1954, English was used as medium of instruction from standard III onwards. In this connection, the Eiselen Commission Report (1949 - 51, par. 919) states as follows:

"Your Commission is of the opinion that the question of mother-tongue medium in Bantu schools is vital to the whole system. We realise that in this connection we will have to face grave difficulties and that public opinion especially among the Bantu, is to a large extent still unenlightened

and that it would consequently possibly be hostile to any drastic change in the use of the medium of instruction. We are satisfied, however, that unless this matter is put in the right perspective not much will be achieved by the system we have recommended"

When the central government took over control of Bantu education the vernacular was used as a medium of instruction up to standard VI in all subjects except the official languages. The principle of the use of the mother tongue was to be extended to the secondary school as soon as that became feasible. In practice this was never done in the secondary schools in Natal. In secondary schools, teachers were supposed to teach half the subjects through the medium of English and the other half through the medium of Afrikaans. Again in practice this was not always feasible, mainly because of lack of teachers who could teach through the medium of Afrikaans in Natal schools.

Horrell (1973, p. 75) reports that very many education-
alists considered the use of the mother tongue as a handicap to children in such subjects as mathematics and science where appropriate terminology did not exist to convey the concepts. The use of the mother tongue as a medium also caused a decline in competence in the official languages.

The Transkeian Government appointed a Commission to inquire into the use of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction. (Cingo Commission, 1963). This Commission supported the principle of the use of the Vernacular as medium of instruction in the primary school, but recommended that an official language should be used as a medium of instruction as from standard III. Soon after the Transkei Government assumed control of education in its territory (in 1964) it introduced a system in terms of which one of the official languages, as selected by parents, was gradually substituted for the African language as a medium of instruction from Std 2. The Kakana, Ntusi, Nkungu Commission Report (1973, p. 24) deals extensively with the desirability of using the mother tongue as a medium of instruction.

The KwaZulu Legislative Assembly passed the Medium of Instruction and Language Act No. 5 of 1973. In terms of this Act English will be used as a medium of instruction after standard III, Afrikaans and Zulu being taught as subjects.

Obviously, the use of a foreign medium presents a child with a double problem of having to struggle with the language as well as the concepts of a particular subject. It must be pointed out at this juncture that the subject matter is itself western oriented, selected and ordered from western culture. This poses a problem to a child who comes from a rural environment. He learns about electricity when there is none in his environment. He must find an area of a rectangle at school when all his home surroundings consist of round huts, round clay pots etc. This clash of culture is found in many instances and subjects.

Referring to this problem of the medium of instruction in African schools, a Zulu educationist (Nyembezi, 1975) states:

"In advocating this change over one should not lose sight of the fact that there will be many difficulties during the period of transition. There will be many failures. Also there is the problem that many teachers in the field are teachers who have been through mother tongue instruction mill. Many of these teachers have a very weak command of English. Some are even shy to converse in English and it might well be that some will throw up their hands in despair and declare that they cannot cope."

This brings us to the problem of staffing, teacher-training, and teacher-pupil ratio.

3.3.3. Staffing

3.3.3.1. Teacher-shortage

The problem of the shortage of teachers is world wide. The International Yearbook of Education, Vol. XXV, 1963,

p. 29 reports that only four of the 17 countries investigated did not report a shortage of teachers. This shortage is not only a result of the expansion of education but also because teachers have been in great demand as persons with suitable qualifications to serve in the civil service, commerce and industry. In addition to this, economic insecurity, inadequate salaries, low social and economic status and low retirement benefits are cited as reasons for this shortage.

The following table gives the number of schools, teachers and pupils (Bantu Education Journal, Vol. XXII, No. 2, March, 1975, p. 36) and indicates the extent of teacher shortage as will be revealed under a discussion of pupil-teacher ratio in paragraph 3.3.3.4.

TABLE 11 : NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND PUPILS IN NATAL AND KWAZULU - 1974

Area	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Pupils
Natal	968	3 844	197 509
KwaZulu	1 569	9 588	568 352
Total for Natal and KwaZulu	2 537	13 432	765 861
Total for Republic	11 947	62 879	3 513 975

The shortage of teachers is felt more at secondary school level. In 1974, 5 713 teachers taught at secondary school level. The total increase of secondary school pupils over the 1973 enrolment of 181 064 is 15,7% bringing the total up to 209 519 pupils, (Annual Report, 1974, p. 54). But in 1973 the three universities training African teachers, produced only 205 teachers while 323 completed the J.S.T.C. at the nine centres situated at the various centres situated in the homelands (Annual Report, 1973, p. 53 and 1974, p. 146).

3.3.3.2. Selection and Training of Teachers

It is an accepted fact that the quality of education imparted depends to a large extent, on the quality of teachers. This aspect will be discussed in chapter four. In this paragraph attention is paid to the training and supply of teachers. Discussing the problem of teacher-training, Prof. Ackermann (Duminy: 1967, p. 79) says that any teacher education programme should be directed toward the following three main objectives: academic preparation, professional training and development of the personality of the teacher. Because of the shortage of recruits for teacher training, particularly at the secondary school level, qualities pertaining to interpersonal relations, the ability to exercise control over children, qualities in connection with energy, vitality, zest, perseverance, interest and love of the child, have never played a part in the selection of future teachers.

The Department of Bantu Education in collaboration with the various homelands' Departments of Education and Culture maintain a number of teacher training schools at which the following courses are taken:

The Primary Teachers' Course (P.T.C.) for the Primary school teachers. the entrance qualification is Form III. The Junior Secondary Teachers' Course (J.S.T.C.) for the junior secondary school classes. The entrance qualification is Senior certificate.

The senior secondary school teachers are trained at the three universities for the Africans. The University of Zululand trains the Zulu speaking students in the following courses:

The Secondary Teachers Diploma which is a one-year professional training course after a successful completion of the first year courses towards a degree in either arts, science or commerce.

The University Education Diploma is also a one-year professional training course after a full degree in either arts, science or commerce; provided that a student

who has passed eight courses in art or six in science can take this Diploma if he satisfies all the other requirements for admission to this course.

The new Bachelor of Pedagogics degree was established at the University of Zululand in 1974 and the first successful candidates will qualify at the end of 1977. It is an integrated course consisting of a study of pedagogics as well as an academic study of courses in any of the three directions of arts, science or commerce for a period of four years.

At the end of the third year, provision is made for students to obtain a Senior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (S.S.T.D.) before they get into the fourth to complete a degree.

K.B. Hartshorne, Director of Planning in the Department of Bantu Education emphasised the problem of teacher shortage when he was addressing a congress of the South African Pedagogical Society in 1973. The training schools and the universities are not yet training a sufficient number of teachers, but the position is improving (Hartshorne: 1973, pp. 9 - 23).

3.3.3.3. Teachers' Qualifications

Whenever the minimum educational standard necessary to enter the teaching profession shows a gradual rise, it indicates a recognition of the fact that entrants into the profession must have high qualifications. The Department of Bantu Education has recently abolished the Lower Primary Teachers' Certificate which was a two year professional training after only Form I. The lowest educational entrance qualification is now Form III for the P.T.C. as described in paragraph 3.3.3.2. above. This is still not adequate. Paragraph 4.1.4.1. will emphasise the importance of qualifications.

The Department of Bantu Education states in its 1974 Annual Report (p. 50) that there is still too high a percent-

age (17,6) of professionally unqualified teachers employed in primary schools. With the increase in enrolment the reduction in this group of teachers is gradual. In addition to the newly trained teachers considerable use is made of qualified married teachers.

The following table (cf Annual Report: 1974, pp. 180 - 183) reveals the state of affairs in connection with the teachers' qualifications in 1974:

TABLE 12: NUMBER OF AFRICAN TEACHERS ACCORDING TO QUALIFICATIONS, 1974.

	Natal	KwaZulu	Republic as a whole
UNQUALIFIED WITH			
(a) Junior Certificate and lower	920	1 268	9 701
(b) Technical Qualification	3	16	58
(c) Matric or Senior Cert.	13	50	357
(d) Degree (Incomplete)	-	5	57
(e) Degree (Complete)	-	5	47
(f) TOTAL unqualified	936	1 344	10 220
QUALIFIED WITH			
(g) Standard 6	1 110	3 359	14 378
(h) Junior Certificate	1 320	3 594	29 467
(i) Technical Qualification	2	4	22
(j) Matric or Senior + P.T.C.	239	648	4 659
(k) Matric or Senior + Secondary teacher training	17	92	826
(l) Degree (Incomplete)	92	214	1 204
(m) Degree (complete)	36	159	1 014
(n) Special Qualification	18	37	229
TOTAL Qualified	2 834	8 107	51 799
GRAND TOTAL	3 770	9 451	62 019

These figures reveal that in the KwaZulu school area more than 50% of the teachers employed are poorly qualified or not qualified at all. This is bound to affect the quality of work in the schools.

3.3.3.4. Teacher-pupil Ratio

Due to a shortage of teachers as described in paragraph 3.3.3.1. and due to a very high rate of increase in the school population, the number of pupils taught by one teacher in a class in African schools is high. Taking the grand totals for the whole Republic of South Africa, the ratio is calculated at 54,3 pupils per teacher. If we take the figures for the KwaZulu school area (with which we shall be dealing in the empirical section) we find the following picture (cf Annual Report: 1974, pp. 182, 187, 189):

TABLE 13: TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO IN KWAZULU SCHOOLS - 1974

Class	No. of Pupils	No. of Teachers	Teacher-pupil Ratio
Lower Primary	377 526	5 013	1 : 63,3
Higher Primary	151 878	3 397	1 : 44,7
TOTAL Primary	529 404	8 410	1 : 62,9
Forms I - V and Teacher Training	36 947	964	1 : 38,3

According to this picture the position is very serious in the lower primary school. This overcrowding may be one cause of the high drop-out rate. The picture in the secondary school may not be as good as it appears because the distribution of pupils is not the same in all areas. In some areas the lower forms are very badly overcrowded.

3.3.4. Pupil wastage and drop-outs

In 1968, Muriel Horrell reported that only about half

of all African children who enter school in sub-standard A are likely to reach standard II and only about one quarter reach standard VI. About one tenth proceed to secondary schools (Horrell: 1968, p. 149).

If we take any two years at random for a closer look, the following trend appears (cf Annual Report, 1972):

TABLE 14: WASTAGE OF PUPILS IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL, 1970 AND 1971

Class	Size in 1970	Class	Size in next class - 1971	Wastage	Reduction as Percent
Sub-A	645 285	Sub-B	511 224	134 061	20,8%
Sub-B	485 857	Std I	451 684	34 173	7,0%
Std I	429 550	Std II	342 636	86 914	25,4%
Std II	324 208	Std III	283 042	41 166	12,6%
Std III	261 108	Std IV	205 114	55 994	21,4%
Std IV	186 944	Std V	160 316	26 628	14,2%
Std V	146 569	Std VI	148 374	1 805	1,2%

From the table above, it is clear that the major drop-out areas are in Sub-A, standard I and standard III. It is interesting to note that these happen at two yearly intervals. This is not a study in drop-outs, but the aim is to point out a disturbing trend whose causes must be found. Since teacher-pupil relationship might contribute to the holding power of the school (in the absence of compulsory education) it is necessary to point this out. The apparent wastage is due not only to drop-outs but also to pupils being kept back in the lower classes and made to repeat a class. This points to a problem of teaching and the quality of learning in these classes.

The K.N.N. Commission (1973, p. 28) in the Transkei, investigated the causes of dropping out by means of an opinionnaire administered to drop-outs themselves. The Commission computed the frequency of responses to questions and arranged these in descending order. From this they deduced

causes related to the individual, the home, the school and the community. That information merely indicates trends and a more scientific survey is necessary.

3.4. RESUMÉ

In this chapter, problems which affect the quality of teaching in their MACROSCOPIC dimensions were discussed. The socio-economic conditions form the background situation in which the educational activity takes place. Reference was made to social factors as treated by Kinloch (1972). The economic factors as manifested by the concept of the poverty datum line and the phenomenon of malnutrition were discussed. Both these factors were shown to influence the quality of teaching in African schools. The financial provision for African education was shown to be so inadequate as to affect the quality of teaching.

Some problems related to the school situation were described. These problems were those concerned with the nature of the curriculum. It was necessary to evaluate briefly the present curriculum used in African schools. The medium of instruction has always been a problem in African schools, and this was mentioned.

Finally, the problem of staffing shows itself in teacher shortages, poor qualification of those who are available, and this emphasises the need for proper teacher training. As a result of all these problems and others not mentioned, there is a high level of pupil wastage.

In the next chapter, specific factors derived from studied literature will be described. Attention will be focussed within the narrow classroom situation where certain microscopic aspects will be discussed. These theoretical discussions will enable the investigator to design an empirical study as described in chapter 5.

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CHAPTER 4

SPECIFIC FACTORS THAT ARE ASSUMED TO INFLUENCE THE QUALITY OF A DIDACTIC SITUATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to map out some of the important FACTORS which are indicated by the literature studied as influencing the quality of teaching in schools. As pointed out under the delimitation of the field of this study, no attempt is made at including all the possible factors which have a bearing on the quality of a didactic situation. Research confined to a few variables that are easily manageable may be considered more scientific. In this investigation one factor will be taken for an empirical study. This will be done with a full awareness that the handling of more factors may have brought out a clearer picture. It will be suggested under a chapter on: "Suggestion for further research" that some of the factors mapped out hereunder need their own investigation.

In order to come to grips with the actual factors which influence the quality of a didactic situation, one has to start by considering the components of a didactic situation, and then isolate the factors in relation to each component. In doing so, it is to be remembered that a teaching-learning situation is an integrated totality. Each component and each factor are related to other components and other factors to form an integrated whole. A.L. Behr (1971, pp 2 - 36) identifies five components of a didactic situation under each of which we shall map out our factors.

4.2. FACTORS UNDER THE COMPONENT-"TEACHER"

The teacher is the initiator of a learning situation.

Under this component we can then isolate the following factors:

4.2.1. The teacher's academic and professional qualifications

To be able to do his task properly; a teacher must undergo a thorough course of training. J.A.C. Visagie (1968) who conducted research on the training of teachers emphasises this point. To be able to teach with confidence, precision and skill a teacher must possess THREE things:

- (a) Knowledge of the subject matter far ahead of his pupils. A teacher who is only a shade ahead of his pupils can never teach with confidence and precision.
- (b) Professional skill to awaken a child's interest in what is being taught and to kindle in his pupils a love of learning.
- (c) A good moral character, diligence, a burning enthusiasm, a love of children and a love for the country. These may be called; the teacher's personal qualities.

4.2.2. The teacher's living conditions

This does not only apply or refer to comfortable residence, away from places of noise and disturbance, but also the best conditions of service with respect to salary, leave privileges, health services, security of tenure and pension schemes.

4.2.3. The teacher's interpersonal relations with other teachers

Morrison & MacIntyre (1969) state that the social relationship among teachers in a school, and particularly the formation of informal groups among them are relevant to the work of the school. The pressure from a group for its members to conform to group norms is likely to influence teaching behaviour and their relationships with their pupils.

4.2.4. The teacher's interpersonal relations with parents

A.L. (Behr (1971) states that in most school systems the relationship between teachers and parents is not close enough. Many parents, particularly in the lower income groups, especially if they have experienced failures themselves, view schools as hostile and forbidding institutions. Sometimes the relationship between the teacher and the parent is a delicate one. This occurs when there is a disagreement between the teacher and the parent, in regard to the child's ability, motivation and behaviour. An interesting case to illustrate this point was reported in the Natal Mercury of the 30th March 1974 where a parent defied the Provincial Ordinance relating to school attendance, and removed his children from school. This parent said that he was dissatisfied with the standard of teaching in the school. This may be an extreme case, but many parents may be at various levels of disagreement with schools and this may affect their children in various ways.

4.2.5. The teacher's interpersonal relations with pupils

This is a factor that will form the main item of empirical study in the present investigation and it is described in fair detail under paragraph 4.7. below.

4.3. FACTORS UNDER THE COMPONENT "PUPIL"

4.3.1. The children's satisfaction of needs

The physiological needs for food and drink, protection and rest must be satisfied in order to maintain life. A child deprived of these needs cannot learn adequately. Security needs are satisfied when a child is aware that people show affection for him as a member of a group.

Esteem needs involve striving for success, superiority, recognition and approval. The child derives pleasure in the successful completion of a task. The success serves as a motivating force towards further development. Cognitive needs include the need to explore, to know and to understand.

4.3.2. Pupils' exposure to concept-forming experiences

A.L. Behr (1971, p. 10) states that concepts develop gradually and within limits, but their formation is aided by the type of experience to which the child is exposed. Birch and Gussow (1970, p. 268) put the case very clearly that there is a general conviction that poor children fail in school because their early experiences had not offered them a fundamental background necessary to school success. It is very difficult to transmit concepts from the teacher to the pupil by mere talk and explanation. Such a procedure will result in mere verbalism and rote learning by the child, leaving erroneous impressions that the concept has been grasped. The teacher must provide a range of specially selected experiences from which concepts can be built by the child himself. In many parts of the world it has been realised that children who were culturally and economically deprived through an unstimulating environment and through inadequate home conditions like poor food, bad housing, were unable to benefit adequately from formal education.

4.3.3. Pupils' goals and aspirations.

Motivation lies at the root of the pupil's wanting to learn and persisting in his efforts. Motives are energisers, selectors and directors of activity. L.D. Crow & A. Crow (1963, p. 252) distinguish between intrinsic motivation which originates within the pupil himself in response to some personal need or urge which he satisfies through learning the appropriate activity; and extrinsic motivation which comes as a result of incentives which are set by someone, other than the learner. Now, a fundamental source of motivation, intrinsic to all individuals, is the need to explore

and interpret the physical and social environment.

D.O. Hebb (1955, pp. 243 - 254) and D. Evans (1967, pp. 195 - 200) found that where learning situations were so contrived that children had the opportunity to explore and discover, they showed a liking for school work, spent more than the usual time at it, learned more and even asked to do additional work. Children learn more easily, thoroughly and with a higher degree of interest and motivation through first-hand experiences.

Birch and Gussow (1970, p. 6) maintain that a child is an organism with a mind and a personality which, when placed in a disadvantageous environment, can be bored, frustrated, understimulated, unmotivated, unprepared, inattentive, distracted, hostile and even rebellious. He also has a body which can be tired, sick and feverish, brain damaged and otherwise organically impaired. There is an intimate relationship between the biology of the child and the characteristics of his environment. The pupils' goals and aspirations will, therefore, depend upon the degree of motivation he has developed.

4.4. FACTORS UNDER THE COMPONENT - "SUBJECT MATTER"

The sum total of all knowledge and skill taught at school, constitutes the subject matter. It is through the subject matter that the teacher and the pupil engage in a pedagogic dialogue. The subject matter provides the source for the teaching and learning activity. The quality of a didactic situation is judged by a degree of understanding of the subject matter that the pupils are able to get, and not merely the possession of facts. Understanding means grasping the structure of a subject.

The structure of the subject has to do with the inter-relatedness of the different concepts of that particular subject and the validation procedures for determining the truth or adequacy of different ideas involved.

4.5. FACTORS UNDER THE COMPONENT -"LEARNING ENVIRONMENT"

A condition in the school as a whole and in the classroom in particular, must exist, that should facilitate teaching and learning. Without order, no satisfactory teaching and learning can take place. The atmosphere that prevails in a school affects the quality of teaching. W.A. Kennedy and H.C. Willcutt (1964) examined results of over thirty studies on praise and blame as incentives to scholastic performance, and concluded that praise acted as a facilitator of learning while blame had the opposite effect. The following factors emerge under this component:

4.5.1. Provision of learning facilities at home through the availability of a quiet place of study.

4.5.2. The availability of books, periodicals and newspapers read by parents.

4.5.3. The size of the family.

4.5.4. Amount of assistance given with homework by parents.

4.5.5. Parental expectations for their children.

4.5.6. The architectural structure of the school buildings, the layout of the playing fields and school grounds, library facilities and other amenities have an important bearing on the teaching-learning situation. The classroom must be so designed that an environment is created in which children can develop their interests and abilities and grow imaginatively and intellectually. Concomitant factors relating to the classroom are its size, ventilation system, lighting, distracting noises, arrangement of desks etc.

4.6. FACTORS UNDER THE COMPONENT - THE LEARNING PROCESS

This is the process by which a learner, as a result of

exposure to teaching, acquires new habits, skills, attitudes, knowledge and concepts as well as new methods and modes of thinking. As a result of this process, an individual changes as a person. Several learning theories have emerged. They attempt to explain how learning occurs and what manipulation of the environment is needed to ensure optimum conditions for effective learning. The learning theories have been a subject of investigation by psychologists and educationists. The teacher's methods of teaching depend on his underlying theory of the learning process. The stimulus-response theory, "Denkpsychologie", the "Gestalt" and the field theories are some of the theories of learning.

As stated earlier, it must be understood that when we deal with these factors singly and as the information permits, it is always within the understood context of a reality in which they are complex and interacting. The mapping out of some of the factors involved in a didactic situation aimed at emphasising this aspect.

4.7. DESCRIPTION OF "PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP" CHOSEN FOR EMPIRICAL STUDY

4.7.1. Importance of healthy interpersonal relation

A teacher's skill in her interpersonal relationship with pupils is by far the most effective determinant in ensuring that an enduring influence is exerted on moral development. First and foremost in the development of a challenging instructional programme is a good emotional climate in which rapport exists between teacher and the pupils. In such a programme, emphasis is on guidance of the children's abilities and interest within educational goals.

O.A. Oeser (1966: p. 9) postulates four psychological propositions: (a) No behaviour is unmotivated. Behaviour results from psycho-physiological processes that underlie

goal seeking. (b) If a goal is too remote, or is not clearly perceived, activity ceases unless a substitute goal is found. (c) No item of knowledge becomes part of a person's total pattern of knowledge unless there is emotional acceptance and cognitive understanding. (d) The most powerful and persistent human needs are for communication and social acceptance. In discussing "The social Roles of Pupils and Teacher and the Relevance to the Acquisition of Knowledge" Oeser (1966, p. 2) says: "During the development of the child, three figures play the major role ... the mother, the father, and the teacher. If these figures are experienced as benevolent, loving and security giving ... the child will grow up in good mental health with an accepting yet independent attitude to society. If the early authorities are experienced as punishing, denying, frustrating, the child will grow up either with a submissive passive set of attitudes, or as a rebellious and destructive citizen. The quality and range of relationships between teachers and pupils are of incalculable importance".

Experimental research has shown that learning and retention are poor when the learner is not interested, and that interest is generated and sustained by social interactions more than by intellectual insights. There is a high correlation between a pupil's liking a subject and his liking the teacher. Children are affected by and concerned with the human qualities and the attitudes of the teacher to them as individuals, not simply with his technical skills.

Although C. Burt (1921) experienced instances which provide an argument against the environmental hypothesis, studies by Bowlby (1952), Spitz (1945), Spitz & Wolf (1946), Goldfarb (1943), and Ribble (1943) are relevant to any study that concerns itself with the growth of intelligence, and particularly academic attainment. All these studies emphasise that intelligent behaviour is optimally developed in a situation of warmth, acceptance, constancy, predictability, flexibility and free interaction. These studies confirm

that the quality of the emotional interchange with the significant persons in the child's environment influences the range of cues to which the child will respond. Burt, nevertheless, found that children suffering from environmental handicaps scored highly in tests of intelligence. Of children in "very poor" and "poor" condition 28,4% had an I.Q. above 100; 3,1% above 120 and 0,4% above 130. All these children came from homes of deplorably low intellectual status. The majority had received meagre education.

This short discussion convinces us that a good personal relationship in teaching and a close and sympathetic contact with the children do actually influence the quality of a didactic situation. Too little friendliness between teacher and taught may well provoke resistance to learning. On the other hand, too much concern with friendliness may mean that more difficult tasks are never seriously attempted.

4.7.2. The Teacher

As an initiator of a learning situation, the teacher is in a position of TRUST and RESPONSIBILITY to help an immature pupil to develop into a mature person. He directs, controls, organises and manages a learning situation.

Harold H. Bernard (1965) considers that the school's most important influence on pupils is provided by the teacher. He sets the tone of the classroom and establishes the mood of the group. He is the authority figure providing the direction for behaviour. If well liked he is a model and consciously copied. If he is disliked pupils may still unconsciously absorb the manners and attitudes.

An article by Myrtle, M. appearing in the Teachers' Encyclopaedia (1966) gives the characteristics of effective teachers as follows:

- (a) The effective teacher makes friends easily, is accepted by others and enjoys helping them. He is dynamic and creative, eager for new knowledge and experiences.

He views himself as evolving in process rather than as a product.

- (b) He avoids, and strives to help others to avoid static situations and comfortable routines and ruts. He does not avoid change and the new simply because of newness. He does not think and act in the same pattern simply because such ways have worked before.
- (c) The effective teacher has wide and varied interests which enable him to contribute to church, school and community affairs.
- (d) The effective teacher understands human behaviour. He places emphasis on learning and the improvement of behaviour, and not on unrelated punishment.
- (e) The effective teacher is well informed and loves learning. He increases the breadth and scope of his knowledge through study and reading. He furthers professional growth through discussions, workshops, seminars, travel and professional conferences. He is an active member of professional organisations and reads their professional publications.
- (f) Effective teachers are creative. The opposite of creativity is rigidity and conformity which impede learning and development and can lead to an avoidance of responsibility because of lack of confidence and self-direction. Non-creative teaching results in children being afraid to ask questions, afraid to give a wrong answer, over-dependent upon authority and bound by rules and regulations.

It would appear that personally maladjusted teachers may or may not affect the personal and social adjustment of their pupils in an adverse way, depending on the type of overt behaviour through which the teacher resolves his/her psychological frustrations. The maladjusted teacher who makes her adjustments through impunitive (i.e. glossing over difficulties) and intropunitive (i.e. selfblaming)

patterns of behaviour may be extremely unhappy herself, but has essentially no negative influence on her pupils' growth and adjustments. However, there is a high probability that the maladjusted teacher who employs extra-punitive (blaming others) patterns of behaviour to reduce her psychological tensions will have an undesirable effect on the psychological growth and development of her pupils. The children in her classroom will probably suffer from intense frustration and pain as a result of her aggressive tendencies through sarcasm, threats, inconsistent episodes of anger and corporal punishment.

In the final analysis, it is the teacher, as a person and as an instructor, who determines the QUALITY of the teaching-learning environment. What he/she is, what he/she says, what he/she does and how he/she relates to others and communicates with them - all these factors determine his/her effectiveness as a teacher.

4.7.3. The Pupils

Bernard (1965) says if the objectives of learning are to be realised, a pupil must first like his teacher. If he learns to dislike hard work, books, school and teacher, the enterprise of education must, to that extent, be considered a failure.

The monumental task of the school is to recognise the special needs of children on an individual basis and to maximise their educational opportunities. To accomplish this, a school should offer individualised instruction, smaller classes, the most up to date instructional materials and ancillary professional services.

Discussing the components of a didactic situation, P.A. Duminy (1968) draws our attention to the nature of children as follows:

- (a) The Lower Primary school children are emotional, unbusinesslike, inefficient, have little self-

discipline and have no independent working habits. Therefore, the teacher must initiate, organise and control all classroom activities and let the pupils merely imitate.

- (b) The Upper Primary school pupils are less emotional and more critical attitudes develop. Desire to tackle problems independently and desire for teamwork develop fast. Therefore, teachers must encourage independent activity, and group co-operation.
- (c) The secondary school pupils experience rapid physical growth. The social, emotional and intellectual requirements have important didactical implications. These pupils have a strong urge towards independence. They develop fixed attitudes towards teachers, subjects, activities, methods and learning. They become aware of their abilities, and limitations. They require real intellectual challenge. The empirical investigation is directed towards these three levels of school pupils in order to find out how they react to the teacher-pupil relationships in the urban and rural situations.

Bernard (1965:p.453) has this to say: "All over the country, the attitudes, adjustments and behaviour of pupils are being influenced by the behaviour, skills, methods and attitudes of teachers. Children and adolescents who have experienced difficulties at home and in school, have revealed improved ability to adjust when they encountered teachers who were capable of giving them responsibility. Boynton and his associates found, from a study of 70 teachers and over a 1 000 fifth and sixth graders, that children begin to be affected by the characteristics of teachers in periods as short as two months. The pupils who had stable teachers showed markedly good mental health and emotional security, while those with tense and unstable teachers revealed poor mental stability on every measure."

Allen (1959) found, however, that boys and girls value most highly the teacher's competence as an instructor. They

also wanted their teacher to make lessons interesting, take a joke and be friendly and approachable.

Musgrove and Taylor (1969) also found that pupils expect teachers to teach. They value lucid exposition, clear statement of problems and guidance in their solution. Personal qualities of kindness, sympathy and patience are secondarily appreciated by pupils only if they make the teacher more effective in carrying out his primary task. Hollis conducted research with over 8 000 children of different ages in both mixed and single sex schools. The characteristics of teachers which children most highly valued was the ability to explain difficulties clearly. Then came sympathy, fairness, humour, readiness to accept questions, wide interest and firm discipline.

Questions which will be used in the empirical study will be derived from this theoretical background. It is postulated that hostility to teacher and school shuts off desire to try. Accumulation of such antagonistic feelings adds in time to a person's characteristic attitudes and values. The school situation and atmosphere must be such that, on the one hand the pupils will feel free to do their own best thinking and acting, and on the other hand, they will be challenged so to think and act. The cultivation of a really constructive atmosphere is the crucial task of school and teacher. It is an atmosphere of friendly group relationships to open the pupil's heart to constructive thinking and acting.

4.7.4. Hypotheses of this study

The main hypothesis in this study is that the child's educability is influenced by the relationships he has with his environment. This environment consists of people who are important to him, namely teachers and parents. This environment also consists of the physical setting of the home and the school. A further hypothesis is that this physical setting is different in an urban from a rural area,

hence a COMPARATIVE study. This study is motivated by a conviction that the essence of a didactic situation is a RELATIONSHIP between the teacher and the pupil. The purpose of this study is to ascertain the relationship between urban and rural pupils on the one hand and their teachers on the other. This is done by means of a questionnaire comprising general questions relating to themselves and their situation. The study is framed in such a way that it should be able to determine whether this relationship is affected by the pupils' place of residence, their class, age, sex, father's level of education and occupation, number of siblings at home, parents' and children's aspirations (see also paragraph 6.2.5.).

On the basis of the theoretical expositions outlined in chapter 1 and the above rationale, the following hypotheses, formulated as null-hypotheses, can now be postulated:

THERE ARE NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN THE PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL PUPILS,

1. (a) who are in standard 6
(b) who are in Form III
2. (a) who are 11 - 14 years of age
(b) who are 15 - 17 years of age
(c) who are over 17 years of age
3. (a) who are male
(b) who are female
4. (a) who were born within the area in which the school is situated
(b) who were born without the area in which the school is situated
5. (a) who reside in their own homes
(b) who reside outside their homes
6. (a) who stay with their parents
(b) who stay with relatives or other people
7. (a) who have up to 3 siblings at home
(b) who have 4 or more siblings at home

8. (a) whose parents do skilled or professional work
(b) whose parents do unskilled work
9. (a) who study in their own rooms at home
(b) who study in a common room at home
10. (a) who use good light for study at home
(b) who use poor light for study at home
11. (a) whose surroundings are noisy
(b) whose surroundings are quiet
12. (a) who have reading material available at home
(b) who have no reading material available at home
13. (a) who are encouraged by their parents with homework
(b) who are not encouraged by their parents to do homework
14. (a) whose parents' educational level is primary school education or none
(b) whose parents' educational level is secondary school education or above
15. (a) who have breakfast every morning
(b) who have no breakfast in the morning
16. (a) who have lunch at school
(b) who have no lunch at school
17. (a) who sometimes or always feel hungry at school
(b) who never feel hungry at school
18. (a) whose parents' aspirations for them are high
(b) whose parents' aspirations for them are low
19. (a) who have high aspirations of their own
(b) who have low aspirations
20. (a) who desire a professional career
(b) who desire a career of only skilled work.

4.8. RESUME

In the final analysis, it is the interaction that takes place between the components that comprise a didactic situation

that determines the quality of teaching. In this chapter, the five components of a didactic situation viz. teacher, pupil, subject matter, learning environment and learning process were discussed with reference to the factors that might affect each one of them.

The importance of interpersonal relationship, particularly between the teacher and the pupil was stressed. On the basis of these theoretical expositions, the null-hypotheses were formulated, and these will be tested by means of the empirical study.

In the foregoing chapters we have now given the theoretical background to the problem at hand, and we have outlined clearly the one factor to be investigated. In the next chapter, a description of the experimental investigation will be given.

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CHAPTER 5

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The study and outline of the theoretical discussions so far helped in providing the background for clarifying the problem and put it in clear focus. This background also helped in the formulation of questions which were included in the questionnaire. The interpretation of data will be based on the theoretical assumptions provided by this study of the background factors.

The researcher's personal experience made him aware of the problem and made him desire to investigate it. This experience brought the researcher into direct and intimate contact with schools, pupils and teachers in both urban and rural situations. The factors that are described in this research are first suggested by the literature studied and then by the researcher's personal experience.

5.2. SAMPLING

5.2.1. The choice of an appropriate sample

The school inspection circuits, from which a sample of eight schools was taken, are in two different areas. The Mtunzini circuit is in a rural area with little urban influence except that some male members leave their homes to seek employment in urban areas and from thence come back with some urban influence. The other area is the Umlazi inspection circuit with schools which serve the children of people who work in the industrial area in the metropolitan city of Durban.

Both groups are Zulu-speaking and, therefore, derived from the same ethnic stock. This choice of sample affords

an opportunity to include a full range of socio-economic levels of cultural differentiation. The schools were taken at random at the various wards making up each area. It was intended to take pupils of the final years in the Lower Primary (i.e. standard II) Higher Primary (i.e. standard VI) and Junior Secondary (form III) in the two contrasting areas. However, after the pilot study, it was decided to drop the standard 2 pupils for reasons given under the description of pilot study in 5.6.1. The following sample was used:

TABLE 15: SCHOOLS AND PUPILS CHOSEN FOR THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

CLASS	URBAN (Umlazi)			RURAL (Mtunzini)				
	NAME OF SCHOOL	PUPILS			NAME OF SCHOOL	PUPILS		
Higher Primary (Std 6)	Mafumbuka	B	G	Total	Khandisa	B	G	Total
	Manzo- -lwandle	18	32	50	Ongoye	21	29	50
	Sub-total	22	28	50		25	25	50
		40	60	100		46	54	100
Secondary Schools (Form III)	Menzi- High	25	25	50	Mqhawe	20	30	50
	Swelihle	30	20	50	Ongoye	26	24	50
	Sub-total	55	45	100		46	54	100
	TOTAL	95	105	200	TOTAL	92	108	200

All the schools chosen are day schools and have no boarding facilities. Therefore, all the pupils reside in their own homes or are lodgers with friends and relatives.

5.2.2. Representativeness of the sample

5.2.2.1. Basic statistics about schools in KwaZulu and Natal

In order to show the representativeness of the sample chosen, the following basic statistics, in respect of the number of Inspection Circuits in KwaZulu and Natal, in relation

to the numbers of schools, teachers and pupils, are given (1973 Statistics issued by the Department of Bantu Education):

TABLE 16: BASIC STATISTICS ABOUT AFRICAN SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU AND NATAL 1973.

	KwaZulu	Natal
Number of Inspection Circuits	22	7
A. Number of Schools		
I. Lower Primary (Sub-A - Std II)	468	458
Higher Primary (Std III - Std VI)	75	30
Primary (Sub-A - Std VI)	801	364
Special School	1	---
Post Primary schools	90	32
	1435	884
<hr/>		
II. Post Primary Sections:		
Junior Secondary (Forms I - III)	70	21
Secondary (Forms I - V)	16	8
Technical	2	--
Teacher Training	4	3
Advanced Technical	1	--
Vocational	4	3
<hr/>		
B. Number of teachers		
Lower Primary classes	4 203	1 911
Higher Primary classes	2 733	1 107
Secondary and Teacher Training	814	325
Advanced Technical Training	4	---
Vocational	63	7
Special schools:	18	---
TOTAL	7 835	3 350

C. <u>Number of Pupils</u>	<u>KwaZulu</u>	<u>Natal</u>
Lower Primary Classes	318 710	129 109
Higher Primary Classes	124 077	44 481
Junior Secondary	24 094	7 042
Senior Secondary	2 401	795
Technical Secondary	100	---
Teacher Training	1 319	410
Advanced Technical	65	---
Vocational Training	958	119
Special School	194	---
	<hr/> 471 918	<hr/> 181 956

5.2.2.2. Proportion of Sample to the Total School Population

In taking 400 pupils as a sample out of a population of over 400 000 pupils, it becomes clear that the sample consists of one pupil out of every 1 000. Two primary schools and two secondary schools were chosen at random from each of the urban and rural environments of Umlazi and Mtunzini respectively. At the urban area of Umlazi there were 19 higher primary schools in 1973, out of which two were chosen. This represents more than 10% of the higher primary schools in this area. In the rural area of Mtunzini there are 16 higher primary schools out of which two were chosen, representing 12½% of the total.

There are eight secondary schools at Umlazi (in 1973). Two of these are senior secondary schools and one has boarding facilities. In the Mtunzini area there are three secondary schools, two of which are boarding schools. In both areas boarding schools were not chosen because this study intended amongst other things, to find out the home conditions of the pupils. Therefore, one secondary school which is a day school was available in the Mtunzini area. Another school to represent a rural area was chosen from the Ndwedwe Inspection Circuit which is also a rural area. This is justified by the fact that the main point is to compare urban and rural

conditions. It is not important that these two schools do not come from the same area. What is of importance to this study is that they both are rural.

5.3. METHODS USED FOR DATA GATHERING

In order to combine the advantages of the questionnaire and the interview, both methods were used. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher personally after establishing the willing co-operation of the respondents who answered the questions in the presence of the researcher.

5.3.1. The interview

If questionnaires are handed out and answered by the respondents at their own leisure, it is difficult to obtain full co-operation. R.M. Travers (1964) says interviews report less than 5% refusal to answer questions whereas returns from posted questionnaires rarely exceed 40%. What is more, those who answer questions omit answers to some questions through either forgetfulness or distaste for facing a particular issue, or through not understanding the question. The researcher, therefore, decided to visit the schools personally and confront the pupils in order to explain and answer questions concerning the purpose of the study, put the pupils at ease in a way that may not have been possible with a pure questionnaire technique. It was thus possible to build up feelings of confidence that made for co-operation and truthfulness on the part of the pupils. This interview was, however, not individual but with the whole class at the same time.

5.3.2. The Questionnaire

The method and procedure of the interview followed, as described above, is not an interview in the strict sense of the word. A strict interview is a procedure where an interviewer sits with an individual interviewee and obtains a rich data reflecting the individuality of each subject in a more personal way than the questionnaire. However, it was decided

to use the questionnaire for the following reasons:

- (a) It is impractical and less efficient to interview many people in schools because of the time involved, need to preserve anonymity and diversity of data sought. In this case, the researcher took about 40 (forty) minutes to get a group of 50 pupils to complete the questionnaire.
- (b) Field work must be completed within a brief period between examination time and the end of the term, or at the beginning of the year before schools warm up to more serious work.
- (c) Access to schools is not easy to arrange. The questionnaire enables maximum use to be made of the limited time which Inspectors and Headmasters could reasonably allow a researcher to remain in their schools. By using a questionnaire, a large number of children could be included, thus affording adequate numbers upon which to base conclusions.
- (d) The questionnaire method affords a good measure of objectivity in assessing and coding the responses of pupils. It also enables the pupils to react to identical stimuli and record these at their own pace.

5.4. DESCRIPTION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

5.4.1. The Questionnaire Items

Items which reveal the children's interaction with their physical and social environment were formulated by the researcher. Variables discovered from the literature studied which have some bearing on the learning behaviour were: environment, class, age, sex, family size, parents' level of education and their occupation, nutrition, goals and aspirations. These factors govern such relationships as understanding, hostility, discipline, sharing of interests, motivation and learning. Since the initiative in creating the

essential pedagogical relationship of trust springs from the teacher as the adult who believes in the significance of life to which he wishes to introduce the child, the teacher must accept the pupil with warmth. To be pedagogical, the entire teaching and educational activity must be planned and executed to achieve the ultimate educational goal. As a result of this consideration the questionnaire items are directed at the pupils in relation to their teachers.

5.4.2. Rationale for the choice of the questionnaire items

Appendix I,A shows the questionnaire that was administered to pupils. The following discussion gives the rationale for the choice of each questionnaire item:

5.4.2.1. General Questions

Question 1. it was explained in chapter 1, paragraph 1.6.3. that this research would include an urban and a rural area in order to find out whether these two environments exert a different influence on the pupils.

Questions 2 (class), 3 (age) and 4 (sex) are the general independent variables that are important to keep in mind in an investigation of this nature. A brief explanation of the reason for their inclusion is given in paragraph 5.4.1.

The K-N-N Commission (1973, p. 36) found that there were more male drop outs than females in poor neighbourhoods, and more female drop-outs than males in areas of socio-economic advantage.

Question 5, Place of birth.

It was necessary to find out whether the pupils were born within or without the area in which the school was situated. The K-N-N Commission (1973, p. 36) found that migration by family from place to place accounted for 1,4% of drop outs. There may be many reasons for this phenomenon of drop outs.

For purposes of this investigation, it is assumed that if a child is born in one area and subsequently moves into another area, particularly after he has entered school, he must learn to adjust himself to the new environment. This need to adjust may in some cases result in maladjustment which may reveal itself in the manner in which he relates to his teachers. If the resulting relationship is not friendly, the quality of learning will be affected.

5.4.2.2. School-based Items

Questions 6 - 15. Among the school-based causes of dropping out, the K-N-N Commission (1973, p. 36) found that low teacher morale, lack of motivation to work hard accounted for 13,7% of the drop outs. Harsh treatment accounted for 12,7%. Poor teaching accounted for 5,5%, poor organisation and lack of supervision by the Principal for 13,7%.

The present investigation assumes that if the teacher's manner of handling a didactic situation is not friendly, his relationship with the pupils will be poor, and this will affect the quality of learnings.

5.4.2.3. Home-based Items

Questions 16 - 27 are related to the home. The K-N-N Commission found that the low socio-economic status of the family accounted for 68,4% of drop outs. Children of the upper classes were said to be persisters or stay-ins, and those of the lower classes dropped out of school in large numbers.

The occupation of the father, as well as the type of residential area and source of family income, seemed to be the major factors affecting drop outs.

It is assumed in this study that a teacher will usually find a problem in handling pupils from a poor home environment and whose family circumstances make it difficult for the child to cope with school work. Whereas we are not dealing with

drop outs here, we take it as an indication of the problem that may affect the teacher-pupil relationship, and consequently, the quality of learning. The description of the socio-economic conditions on the macroscopic level in chapter 3, paragraph 3.2. provided a background to this point.

It is conceded that some items e.g. item 22 viz, type of light, are very remotely connected with teacher-pupil relationship. It is, however, assumed that any situation that affects the child's facility for learning will also affect his relationship with his teacher, and consequently affect the quality of his learning.

It is also necessary to explain here that items 18 and 19 refer to skilled work. This is described in paragraph 6.3.8. of this investigation. The definition of skilled work is not precise. For purposes of this investigation this concept has to be broadened to include any occupation for which post-standard 6 education is a pre-requisite. The reason for this decision is that there are so few Africans doing skilled work that they are insignificant. Therefore, an arbitrary level had to be drawn to separate those who do completely unskilled type of work and those who do work which requires some skill. Usually primary school education (which ends in standard 6, for Africans) is thus taken to be the minimum requirement for being able to get a skilled job. This does not mean all people with standard six do skilled jobs; nor does it mean people without standard six cannot do a skilled job.

5.4.2.4. Individual-based Items

Items 28 - 34. The emphasis was on food and nutrition. The K-N-N Commission (p. 36) found that starvation, hunger and poor health accounted for 30,5% of drop outs. Low need for achievement accounted for 17,5%.

It must be emphasised, in conclusion, that these items are assumed to indicate the relationship that exists between the teacher and his pupils. Some do this to a greater extent,

others to a lesser extent.

5.4.3. Description of the Coding Procedure

Thirty four questions were formulated and included in the questionnaire. Since the punch card machine was to be used in calculating the frequencies, each question was allocated a column number (C) which corresponded with a column in the punch card. Questions were framed in such a way that a respondent could choose one from two, three, four or five alternatives. Each alternative in each question was given a code number (D) which corresponded with a number in the punch card.

TABLE 17: CODING PROCEDURE

A	B	C	D								
No.	Item		Code No.								
1.	Place where school is situated	7	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Urban 1</td> <td>Rural 2</td> </tr> </table>	Urban 1	Rural 2						
Urban 1	Rural 2										
2.	Class of pupil	8	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Std 2</td> <td>std 6</td> <td>Form III</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3	Std 2	std 6	Form III		
1	2	3									
Std 2	std 6	Form III									
3.	Age of pupil	10	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7-10</td> <td>11-14</td> <td>15-17</td> <td>Over 17</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3	4	7-10	11-14	15-17	Over 17
1	2	3	4								
7-10	11-14	15-17	Over 17								
4.	Sex of pupil	12	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Male 1</td> <td>Female 2</td> </tr> </table>	Male 1	Female 2						
Male 1	Female 2										
5.	Place of birth	13	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>* Within 1</td> <td>Without 2</td> </tr> </table>	* Within 1	Without 2						
* Within 1	Without 2										
6.	Atmosphere in class	16	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>Always 1</td> <td>Occasion- nally 2</td> <td>Seldom 3</td> </tr> </table>	Always 1	Occasion- nally 2	Seldom 3					
Always 1	Occasion- nally 2	Seldom 3									
7.	Interest in class	17	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3					
1	2	3									
8	Teacher's encouraging discussions	18	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3					
1	2	3									

* See Chapter 5, paragraph 5.4.2.1. and Chapter 6, paragraph 6.3.4.(b)

A	B	C	D					
No.	Item	Column No.	Code No.					
9.	Teacher cheerful-ness	19	Always 1	Occass. 2	Seldom 3			
10.	Teacher assisting with problems	22	Always 1	Occass. 2	Seldom 3			
11.	Punishment given	23	Always 1	Occass. 2	Seldom 3			
12.	Children fearing to ask questions	24	Always 1	Occass. 2	Seldom 3			
13.	Teacher's irrita-ting mannerisms	27	Always 1	Occass. 2	Seldom 3			
14.	Teacher's explana-tions understood.	28	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="832 1203 973 1312">Yes 1</td> <td data-bbox="973 1203 1084 1312">No 2</td> </tr> </table>			Yes 1	No 2	
Yes 1	No 2							
15.	Children's liking for their teacher	29	Much 1	Little 2	Not 3			
16.	Children's place of residence	33	Own home 1	Relative 2	Stranger 3			
17.	With whom children stay	34	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="669 1622 943 1731">Both parents 1</td> <td data-bbox="943 1622 1062 1731">One 2</td> <td data-bbox="1062 1622 1187 1731">None 3</td> </tr> </table>			Both parents 1	One 2	None 3
Both parents 1	One 2	None 3						
18.	Father's job	36	Prof. 1	Skilled 2	Unskilled 3			
19.	Mother's job	37	Prof. 1	Skilled 2	Unskilled 3			

A	B	C	D								
No.	Item	Column No.	Code No.								
20.	No. of children at home	39	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 577 817 665">None 1</td> <td data-bbox="817 577 917 665">1-3 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="917 577 1173 665">4 and over 3</td> </tr> </table>				None 1	1-3 2	4 and over 3		
None 1	1-3 2	4 and over 3									
21.	Place of study at home	40	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 721 917 809">Study room 1</td> <td colspan="3" data-bbox="917 721 1173 809">Common room 2</td> </tr> </table>				Study room 1	Common room 2			
Study room 1	Common room 2										
22.	Type of light used for studying at home	42	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 864 817 986">Candle 1</td> <td data-bbox="817 864 995 986">Paraffin lamp 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="995 864 1225 986">Electricity 3</td> </tr> </table>				Candle 1	Paraffin lamp 2	Electricity 3		
Candle 1	Paraffin lamp 2	Electricity 3									
23.	Presence of disturbing people during study	43	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1041 877 1130">Frequent 1</td> <td data-bbox="877 1041 1069 1130">Occass. 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1069 1041 1225 1130">Never 3</td> </tr> </table>				Frequent 1	Occass. 2	Never 3		
Frequent 1	Occass. 2	Never 3									
24.	Availability of reading material	44	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1185 832 1274">Daily 1</td> <td data-bbox="832 1185 1025 1274">Occass. 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1025 1185 1181 1274">Never 3</td> </tr> </table>				Daily 1	Occass. 2	Never 3		
Daily 1	Occass. 2	Never 3									
25.	Parents encouraging children with homework	47	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1329 877 1417">Frequent 1</td> <td data-bbox="877 1329 1069 1417">Occass. 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1069 1329 1225 1417">Never 3</td> </tr> </table>				Frequent 1	Occass. 2	Never 3		
Frequent 1	Occass. 2	Never 3									
26.	Educational level of parents	48	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1473 758 1550">None 1</td> <td data-bbox="758 1473 822 1550">L.P. 2</td> <td data-bbox="822 1473 885 1550">H.P. 3</td> <td data-bbox="885 1473 949 1550">Sec. 4</td> <td data-bbox="949 1473 1181 1550">Univ. 5</td> </tr> </table>				None 1	L.P. 2	H.P. 3	Sec. 4	Univ. 5
None 1	L.P. 2	H.P. 3	Sec. 4	Univ. 5							
27.	Presence of noise at home	52	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1616 847 1694">Always 1</td> <td data-bbox="847 1616 1040 1694">Occass. 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1040 1616 1196 1694">Never 3</td> </tr> </table>				Always 1	Occass. 2	Never 3		
Always 1	Occass. 2	Never 3									
28.	Type of breakfast eaten	53	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1749 817 1871">Mealie 1</td> <td data-bbox="817 1749 955 1871">Bread 2</td> <td data-bbox="955 1749 1069 1871">Left over 3</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1069 1749 1225 1871">Nothing 4</td> </tr> </table>				Mealie 1	Bread 2	Left over 3	Nothing 4	
Mealie 1	Bread 2	Left over 3	Nothing 4								
29.	Hunger at school	55	<table border="1"> <tr> <td data-bbox="694 1915 847 2015">Always 1</td> <td data-bbox="847 1915 1040 2015">Occass. 2</td> <td colspan="2" data-bbox="1040 1915 1196 2015">Never 3</td> </tr> </table>				Always 1	Occass. 2	Never 3		
Always 1	Occass. 2	Never 3									

A	B	C	D			
No.	Item	Column No.	Code			
30.	Where lunch obtained	57	Sch.meals 1	From home 2	Shop 3	None 4
31.	Parents' aspirations about child's time of leaving school	61	Imm. Std 6 1 2		Form III 3	Qual. 4
32.	Child's own aspirations about time of leaving school	62	Imm. Std 6 1 2		Form III 3	Qual. 4
33.	Place of work desired by child	66	At home 1	Near home 2	Far from home 3	
34.	Profession or trade desired by child	67	Professional = 1 Business = 2 Clerical = 3 Service = 4 Manual labour = 5			

Code numbers were then transferred to a coding sheet for each questionnaire. Each coding sheet contains 80 squares corresponding to the spaces provided in the punching card.

5.5. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUE EMPLOYED

To compare means to examine so as to perceive similarities or dissimilarity and to state this resemblance or difference. As stated under the section on limitations (par 1.6), the analysis of data may not bring out significant results because the mechanistic presuppositions of science cannot be

applied to those aspects of human life which are especially significant in the field of education. Nevertheless, the method of statistical analysis of data will be used.

to test the meaningfulness of the χ^2 test for two or "k" independent samples will be used. Siegel (1956, p.1) states:

"...In statistical inference, we are concerned with how to draw a conclusion about a large number of events on the basis of observations of a portion of them. Statistics provide tools which formalise and standardise our procedures for drawing conclusions. The procedures of statistical inference introduce order into any attempt to draw conclusions from evidence provided by sample. A common problem for statistical inference is to determine, in terms of probability, whether observed differences between samples signify that the populations sampled are themselves really different. The procedures of statistical inference enable us to determine, in terms of probability, whether the observed difference is within the range which could easily occur by chance or whether it is so large that it signifies that the two samples are probably from two different populations."

TABLE

CLA

Standard 6

Form 131

We chose the χ^2 Test because Siegel says (1956: p. 104):

"When the data of research consists of frequencies in discrete categories the χ^2 test may be used to determine the significance of differences between two independent groups. The measurement involved may be as weak as nominal scaling. The hypothesis under test is usually that the two groups (in this case the urban and the rural group) differ with respect to some characteristic and, therefore, with respect to the relative frequency with which group members fall in several categories. To test this hypothesis we count the number of cases from each group which fall in the various categories, and compare the proportion of cases from one group in the various categories with the proportion of cases from the other group."

5.6. TEST ADMINISTRATION

5.6.1. THE PILOT STUDY

It was found that three schools from the urban area of Umlazi and three schools from the rural area of Mtunzini were chosen for a

pilot study. Pupils from the three levels of development; namely standard two (10 years of age), standard six (14 years), and form III (17 years of age) were selected to test the meaningfulness of the draft questions. Whole classes were used in order to test and include all ability ranges (though ability was not a consideration in this research) and to keep the classes intact so as not to disorganise the school. Table 17 indicates the classes, schools and pupils selected for the pilot study.

TABLE 18 : CLASSES, SCHOOLS AND PUPILS SELECTED FOR A PILOT STUDY

URBAN			RURAL	
CLASSES	SCHOOL	NO. OF PUPILS	SCHOOL	NO. OF PUPILS
Standard 2	Inselele	56	Khandisa	48
Standard 6	Manzolwandle	50	Khandisa	40
Form III	Swelihle	48	Ongoye	42

Care was taken that the classes used for a pilot study would not be used again for the actual study after the procedure for the administration of the questionnaire had been decided upon. The pilot study was conducted at the end of 1973 after examinations, and the actual study was conducted at the beginning of 1974 when the pupils who were in these classes had moved up to the following classes.

During the pilot study, the researcher wished to determine the time to be allowed for administering the questionnaire, and to evolve the best method of doing so. Pupils were allowed to query and comment on the questions in order to discover whether these items were sufficiently intelligible to them.

It was found that the pupils in standard 6 and Form III were able to answer the questions properly. It was necessary

to explain and translate some words into Zulu for clear understanding. However, it was found that the standard 2 pupils had difficulty in following the questions that were written in English even when these were translated into Zulu during the actual administration.

It was not just a matter of language, but also that the pupils were not used to the procedure of having to think independently and to decide on their own. This confirmed the observation by P.A. Duminy reported in paragraph 4.7.3.(a) of this study. It became clear that they had not matured enough to be able to make up their minds what their choice was going to be in respect of many items. When, for example, a few were asked individually: "Does your teacher make classwork interesting?" they would answer: "I do not know."

5.6.2. The Actual Study
5.6.2.1. Permission

Mouilly (1970, p. 251) states that the use of the questionnaire for the measurement of attitudes and feelings raises the very pertinent question: "Does the person understand himself sufficiently?" The questionnaire calls for a substantial educational background if it is to be answered adequately. Abrams (1951) quoted by Mouilly, says 90% of the people misinterpret 10% of the questions, and that at least 10% of the people misinterpret 90% of the questions. It was for this clear reason that the researcher decided to drop the standard two pupils as being too young to be able to understand themselves in relation to their teachers. It was also for this reason that the researcher decided to have the pupils answer the questions in his presence so as to eliminate, as far as possible, the possibility of misinterpreting the questions.

As a result of this pilot study experience, it was decided that the following procedure would be followed during the actual administration of the questionnaire:

- (a) Each questionnaire item would be read out to the pupils by the researcher.

- (b) The question would be explained in order to make sure that the pupils understood what was required.
- (c) The pupils would then be given enough time (about one minute) to think and decide on their answer.
- (d) After the researcher had established (by observing them) that they were all ready to answer the question, they would then be instructed to put a tick in the space next to the answer they chose.

This procedure was practised several times in order to make sure that it was standardised.

5.6.2. The Actual Study

5.6.2.1. Permission

This was first secured from the Circuit Inspector in each of the two areas. One trip was undertaken to Umlazi to request the Headmasters to allow the researcher into their schools and make appointments for a definite date and time. One trip to each of the four schools was necessary in the Mtunzini area to make these appointments. The researcher received excellent co-operation in all the schools.

5.6.2.2. Administering the questionnaire

At the appointed time the researcher would be introduced to a class. The pupils would then be told the purpose of the research as an investigation designed to find out how they learn in their school, so that, having found out the things that worry them, they would be helped to learn more effectively and comfortably. They were told that this had nothing to do with examination passing or failing their particular class. In every case this announcement was always met with a sigh of relief on the part of the pupils. A joke would then be told in order to get them to laugh and relax and thus rapport would be established. They would then be told that what they write must be truthful and honest; that they would

not write their names anywhere and, therefore, need not fear anything at all. It was explained that the question would first be read by the researcher, then explained, after which they would be given enough time to ask if they did not understand. They would be given a chance to think and decide what answer to choose from amongst those provided or, in some cases, supply one of their own, and then make a tick in the appropriate space. This procedure worked very well indeed and each group took between 35 and 40 minutes. Mouly (1970: p. 258) states:

"Although one may adopt as a rule of thumb that a questionnaire should not take more than half an hour of the respondent's time, the time factor must be considered in the light of the nature of the topic, the loyalty of the group contacted and the other facts - many of which are of greater importance than time itself".

After completing the questionnaire, pupils were asked to express themselves freely on what they liked or did not like at their school. They were also requested to state their preference of the medium of instruction. The report will be given on the chapter dealing with the "presentation of evidence".

5.7 TABLE 19: SUMMARY OF TEST SUBJECTS' RESPONSES
 (See Appendixes 1 - 20)

				1	2	3	4
NO.	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI-SQUARE
				n	\bar{X}	%	χ^2
1	CLASS	Urban	Std 6	100	79,8	79,8	0,0197
		Rural	Std 6	100	79,6	79,6	
		Urban	Form III	100	68,0	68,0	0,1085
		Rural	Form III	100	64,8	64,8	
2	AGE	Urban	11-14 yrs	74	59,0	79,7	0,0522
		Rural	11-14 yrs	33	26,4	80,0	
		Urban	15-17 yrs	96	68,5	71,4	0,098
		Rural	15-17 yrs	104	77,3	74,3	
		Urban	Over 17	30	19,8	66,0	0,0065
		Rural	Over 17	63	42,6	67,6	

				1	2	3	4
NO.	INDEPEN- DENT VA- RIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI- SQUARE
				n	\bar{x}	%	χ^2
3	SEX	Urban	Male	95	65,6	69,05	0,24
		Rural	Male	92	67,5	73,4	
		Urban	Female	105	81,3	77,4	0,514
		Rural	Female	108	78,0	72,2	
4	PLACE OF BIRTH	Urban	Within	43	32,4	75,3	0,039
		Rural	Within	90	67,7	75,2	
		Urban	Without	157	117,0	74,5	0,318
		Rural	Without	110	77,7	70,6	
5	PLACE OF RESI- DENCE	Urban	Own Home	177	130,7	73,8	0,0133
		Rural	Own Home	123	92,4	75,1	
		Urban	Away	23	17,1	74,3	0,055
		Rural	Away	77	53,1	69	
6	PEOPLE WITH WHOM PUPILS STAY	Urban	Parents	169	125,4	74,2	0,0918
		Rural	Parents	133	101,6	76,4	
		Urban	Others	31	22,6	72,9	0,0018
		Rural	Others	67	50,7	75,7	

				1	2	3	4
	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI-SQUARE
				n	\bar{X}	%	χ^2
7	NUMBER OF SIBLINGS	Urban	Up to 3	76	56,3	74,08	0,00024
		Rural	Up to 3	52	39,3	75,6	
		Urban	4 and over	124	91,5	73,8	0,568
		Rural	4 and over	148	106,2	71,8	
8	PARENTS' OCCUPATION	Urban	Skilled	36	27,4	76,1	0,0112
		Rural	Skilled	20	14,7	73,5	
		Urban	Unskilled	164	120,2	73,3	0,0023
		Rural	Unskilled	180	131,3	72,9	
9	PLACE OF STUDY	Urban	Own Room	112	86,9	77,6	0,206
		Rural	Own Room	87	64,2	73,8	
		Urban	Common R'm	88	61	69,3	0,0127
		Rural	Common R'm	113	80,3	71,1	
10	TYPE OF LIGHT USED FOR STUDY	Urban	Good	14	8,6	61,4	0,0499
		Rural	Good	16	11,3	70,6	
		Urban	Poor	186	138,7	74,6	0,202
		Rural	Poor	184	132,4	71,9	

				1	2	3	4
	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI-SQUARE
				n	\bar{X}	%	χ^2
11	NOISY OR QUIET	Urban	Noisy	165	122,8	74,4	0,781 0,0194
		Rural	Noisy	146	115,8	79,3	
		Urban	Quiet	35	25,3	72,3	
		Rural	Quiet	54	38,5	71,3	
12	AVAILABILITY OF READING MATERIAL	Urban	Available	189	139,8	73,9	0,000037 0,0177
		Rural	Available	166	121,7	73,3	
		Urban	Not Av.	11	8,4	76,4	
		Rural	Not Av.	34	23,2	68,2	
13	PUPIL ENCOURAGEMENT WITH HOMEWORK	Urban	Encouraged	194	144,8	74,6	2,79 0,1712
		Rural	Encouraged	174	115,1	66,1	
		Urban	Not Enc.	6	3,8	63,3	
		Rural	Not Enc.	26	16,8	64,6	
14	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS	Urban	Primary	92	66,2	71,9	0,0483 0,0125
		Rural	Primary	123	90,2	73,3	
		Urban	Secondary	108	80,4	74,4	
		Rural	Secondary	77	55,9	72,6	

				1	2	3	4
	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI-SQUARE
				n	\bar{x}	%	χ^2
15	AVAILABILITY OF BREAK-FAST	Urban	Some	186	137,2	73,8	0,0061
		Rural	Some	182	132,6	72,9	
		Urban	None	14	10,6	75,7	0,0056
		Rural	None	18	12,7	70,6	
16	AVAILABILITY OF LUNCH	Urban	Some	199	148,7	74,6	0,31
		Rural	Some	173	123,9	71,6	
		Urban	None	1	0,7	70	1,1818
		Rural	None	27	19,5	72,2	
17	EXPERIENCE OF HUNGER	Urban	Sometimes	178	130,4	73,3	0,0213
		Rural	Sometimes	175	126	72	
		Urban	Never	22	16,9	76,8	0,0048
		Rural	Never	25	18,2	72,8	
18	PARENTS' ASPIRATIONS	Urban	High	128	95,5	74,6	0,0937
		Rural	High	137	98,9	72,2	
		Urban	Low	10	6,8	68	0,0229
		Rural	Low	24	17,4	72,5	

				1	2	3	4
	INDEPEN- DENT VA- RIABLES	PLACE	CATEGORIES	TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS	MEAN SCORES	PERCENT OF 2 TO 1	CHI- SQUARE
				n	\bar{X}	%	χ^2
19	PUPILS' OWN ASPI- RATIONS	Urban	High	145	106,6	73,5	0,0102
		Rural	High	133	96,1	72,3	
		Urban	Low	8	6,8	85	0,408
		Rural	Low	12	10,2	85	
20	PUPILS' DESIRED CAREERS	Urban	Prof.	173	128	73,9	0,062
		Rural	Prof.	150	108,2	72,1	
		Urban	Skilled	27	18,9	70	0,027
		Rural	Skilled	50	37,3	74,6	

The figures in columns 1, 2 and 3 are obtained from the tables of the pupils' responses in appendixes 1 to 20. The figures in column 4 are obtained from the table of the calculation of the Chi-square statistics shown in appendix 21.

The figures presented above will then be compared, discussed, analysed and interpreted in the following chapter.

5.8. RESUMÉ

In this chapter the sampling procedures were described. The appropriateness and the representativeness of the sample were demonstrated. The questionnaire and the interview were described as instruments that were used in this study. The statistical techniques employed were briefly discussed and the practical procedures taken in the administration of the

questionnaire were described. A summary of the test subjects' responses was tabulated.

Having collected raw data according to the procedures thus far described, we are now in a position to analyse and interpret this data. This will be done in chapter 6.

5.9. REFERENCES

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CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

6.1. DESCRIPTION OF THE MANNER OF ANALYSING DATA

The central aspect of this research is the description of the socio-pedagogic phenomenon of pupil-teacher relationship as influenced by a number of factors. The questionnaire items that were answered by the pupils were divided into two main categories of dependent and independent variables. For purposes of this research, the dependent variables are those that are assumed to indicate whether the pupils are well- or ill-disposed towards their teachers. These are items 2.1. to 2.10 of the questionnaire and they are arranged in the left hand column in each of the twenty tables set out in appendixes 1 to 20. The independent variables are those that are assumed to influence the pupils' disposition towards their teachers. Twenty such variables are isolated in the questionnaire. Each one of them, as set out in the tables, is taken out and held constant while we find out how the pupils respond to the dependent variables. For example, in table 1 we take the independent variable- CLASS- and find out how the pupils in the primary school (i.e. standard 6) and in the secondary school (i.e. from III) react to their teachers.

Since this is a comparative study, the pupils' responses will be compared in order to find out whether there are any significant differences between the pupils in urban schools and those in rural schools. Only favourable responses by pupils, which indicate that the pupils are well-disposed towards their teachers, are recorded. These are assumed to reveal a good pupil-teacher relationship. Each table consists of ONE independent variable, ten dependent variables and the pupils' responses juxtapositioned with regard to urban and rural environments. The overall disposition of the respondents in the sample will be measured by a score

which is the arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) of the sum of the weights given by the respondents (Behr: 1973, p. 75). Percentages are given in the tables for purposes of easy comparisons because the totals of responses according to the various independent variables are not the same and it would have been difficult to compare these without first reducing them to a common denominator.

6.2. THE χ^2 TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT SAMPLES (SIEGEL: 1956, p. 104)

6.2.1. The function of this test

When the data of research consists of frequencies in discrete categories, the χ^2 test may be used to determine the significance of the differences between two independent groups. The hypothesis under test is usually that, two groups (in our case, urban and rural pupils) DIFFER with respect to some characteristics (in this case, pupil-teacher relationship) and, therefore, with respect to the relative frequency with which group members fall into several categories. To test this hypothesis we count the number of cases from each group which fall in the various categories, and compare the proportion of cases from one group with the proportion of cases from the other group. In this case we test whether the urban and the rural pupils differ in the frequency with which they reveal their relationship with their teachers.

6.2.2. Method of Testing

Since the groups under study are independent and do not number more than two, a statistical test for K- independent sample is chosen (Siegel: 1956, p. 107). The null-hypothesis will be tested by means of the following formula:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N \left(\left| AD - BC \right| - \frac{N}{2} \right)^2}{(A+B)(C+D)(A+C)(B+D)} = df = 1$$

Siegel says this formula is better when applying the test to data where both rows (r) and the columns (k) equal two. It lends itself readily to machine computation. It incorporates a correction for continuity which markedly improves the approximation of the distribution of the computed χ^2 by the chi-square distribution. It tests whether an observed distribution of frequencies in a 2 x 2 contingency table could have occurred by chance under the null-hypothesis.

6.2.3. Statistical Analysis

The means (\bar{X}) of pupils' responses are taken and calculated from the tables set out in the appendixes 1 to 20. The differences between the figures shown in each table for those responses which indicate favourable disposition and the total number of pupils in each case constitute the number of pupils who are assumed to be ill-disposed towards their teachers.

From these figures a contingency table is then constructed as follows:

TABLE 20: CONTINGENCY TABLE

	Well-disposed	Ill-disposed	TOTAL
Urban	A	B	A + B
Rural	C	D	C + D
Total	A + C	B + D	N

From these figures the χ^2 test is computed according to the formula given in paragraph 6.2.2. The actual results of the χ^2 calculations are summarised in appendix 21.

6.2.4. The Problem

The problem to be solved by data in the 20 tables arranged in the appendixes is whether urban pupils DIFFER from rural pupils with respect to their relationship with their teachers.

6.2.5. The Null-hypothesis

This study aims to test the hypothesis that is formulated as a null-hypothesis in the following manner: THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE IN THE PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL PUPILS. (See paragraph 4.7.4. of this study for a description of this hypothesis). The alternative or research hypothesis (H_1) is that rural pupils are well-disposed towards their teachers because of the homely nature of their environment. Therefore, the pupil-teacher relationship is better in rural classes than in urban classes.

6.2.6. Significance level

In this research, we choose $\alpha = 0,01$ for $N = 200$.

6.2.7. Sampling distribution

Under the null-hypothesis, χ^2 is distributed approximately as chi-square with degree of freedom: $(k - 1) (r - 1) = 1$. The probability associated with the occurrence under the null-hypothesis of values as large as an observed value of χ^2 is shown in the following table (Siegel: p. 249):

TABLE 21; TABLE OF CRITICAL VALUES OF CHI-SQUARE FOR $df = 1$

df	PROBABILITY UNDER H_0 that $\chi^2 \geq$ CHI-SQUARE									
	,98	,95	,90	,80	,70	,50	,30	,20	,10	,05
	,00063	,0039	,016	,064	,15	,46	1,07	1,64	2,71	3,84
	,02	,01	,001							
	5,41	6,64	10,83							

6.2.8. Region of rejection and decision

This region consists of all values of χ^2 which are so large that the probability associated with their occurrence is equal to or less than $\alpha = 0,01$. The table of critical values of chi-square shows that when $df = 1$, a χ^2 of 6,64 has a probability of occurrence under the null-hypothesis of 0,01. Therefore, the region of rejection of the null-hypothesis consists of all χ^2 greater than 6,64. Anything less than 6,64 will mean that the null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3. DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

6.3.1. The Effect of Class on Pupil-teacher Relationship

- (a) The figures shown in Appendix 1, and in Table 19 in the summary of the pupils' responses presented in the previous chapter, show that 79,8% of the urban standard 6 pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers. 79,6% of the rural standard 6 pupils are favourably disposed. It is also observed that for urban Form III pupils, the score is 68% while for rural Form III pupils, the score is 64,8%.
- (b) The chi-square for the standard 6 pupils is 0,0197 and that for Form III is 0,1085. Since both these yield values far less than 6,64 for our significance level of 0,01 we, therefore, ACCEPT the null-hypothesis and state that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who are either in standard 6 or Form III, in their disposition towards their teachers.
- (c) The decision of no difference between urban and rural primary and secondary school pupils has the implication that teachers may expect to find that urban and rural pupils are similarly disposed towards them.
- (d) It is noted, however, that more primary school pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers than

secondary school pupils. In both urban (79,8) and rural (79,6) schools, almost 80% of standard 6 pupils reveal a favourable disposition. On the other hand less than 70% of both the urban (68,0) and the rural (64,8) secondary school pupils are well-disposed towards their teachers. This means the higher the class, the less the pupils reveal a favourable disposition. This may be attributed to the growing independence and, therefore, weaker attachment of pupils to their teachers in the secondary school. Another possible interpretation may be found in the system of subject teaching in the secondary schools as against class teaching in the primary school which establishes a more personal relationship between the pupils and their teachers. A more systematic attention to this aspect would involve all the classes in order to confirm the validity of this finding.

6.3.2. The Effect of AGE on Pupil-teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of 200 urban pupils, 74 were between 11 and 14 years old, and out of 200 rural pupils only 33 were between 11 and 14 years. Out of the same 200 urban pupils, 96 had ages between 15 and 17 years, whereas out of the other 200 rural pupils, 104 had ages between 15 and 17 years. Out of the 200 urban pupils, only 30 were over 17 years, whereas out of the 200 rural pupils 63 had ages over 17 years. (Refer to summary in Table 13). This distribution shows that more rural pupils are in the older age group. It would be interesting in a study focussing its attention on age to find out the significance of the urban-rural difference in age on pupil performance at school and the effect on the drop out rate. It would also be interesting to find out how long pupils in rural areas who get to school late, remain in school.
- (b) However, in this study we are focussing our attention on pupil-teacher relationship. We find that 79,7% of the 11 - 14 year olds and 80% of the rural 11 - 14 year olds

are favourably disposed towards their teachers (cf. Appendix 2). 71,4% of the urban 15 - 17 year olds and 74,3% of the rural 15 - 17 year olds are favourably disposed. 66% of the urban over 17 year olds and 67,6% of the rural over 17 year olds are favourably disposed towards their teachers. This reveals a very interesting trend which confirms the finding we discovered in respect of class, namely that the higher the class, the less favourably disposed the children become towards their teachers. In this case the trend manifests itself clearly that whereas the 11 - 14 year olds score almost 80% in their responses of favourable disposition, the 15 - 17 year olds are just above 70%, whereas the over 17's score less than 70%.

- (c) The chi-square for the 11 - 14 year olds is 0,0522, that for the 15 - 17 years of age is 0,098, and that for the over 17 is 0,0065. In all cases, age for age, we ACCEPT the null-hypothesis and declare that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.3. The Effect of SEX on Pupil-teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of 200 urban pupils, 95 were males and 105 were females. Out of 200 rural pupils, 92 were males and 108 were females (cf. summary on page 123).
- (b) 69,05% of the urban males report a favourable disposition towards their teachers, whereas 73,4% of the rural males report a favourable disposition. 77,4% urban females and 72,2% rural females report a favourable disposition. It is interesting to note that fewer urban males than rural males are favourably disposed. The opposite is true with respect to females. More urban females than rural females are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square for the male pupils is 0,240 and that for the females is 0,514. Therefore, there is no difference

rence between urban and rural male or female pupils in their relationship with their teachers.

6.3.4. The Effect of Place of Birth on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of the 200 urban pupils only 43 were born within the area in which the school they are attending is situated. This is easily explainable by the fact that Umlazi Township was established in 1963 and families have been migrating into it ever since. Of the rural pupils more than twice as many were born within the area in which the school is situated than of the urban pupils. 157 urban pupils and 110 rural pupils were born outside the area in which their school is situated (cf. summary on page 108).
- (b) 75,3% and 75,2% of urban and rural pupils respectively who were born within the area in which the school is situated are favourably disposed. 74,5% urban and 70,6% of the rural pupils born outside the area in which the school is situated, are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square for the pupils born within the area is 0,039 and for those born without is 0,318. These figures reveal that the null-hypothesis must be ACCEPTED and that we can say that there is no difference in their disposition towards their teachers, between either pupils born within the area or those born without the area in which the school is situated.

6.3.5. The Effect of Place of Residence on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of the 200 pupils in urban schools, it was found that 177 stay at their own homes, and only 23 stay away from home while they attend school. Of the 200 rural pupils 123 stay at their own homes and 77 stay away from their homes.

- (b) Of the urban pupils who stay at their own homes 73,8% reveal a favourable disposition towards teachers while 75,1% of the rural pupils reveal such a disposition.
- (c) The chi-square for the two groups is 0,133 which makes us conclude that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who stay at their own homes in their disposition towards their teachers.
- (d) Of the pupils who stay away from their homes 74,5% of urban pupils and 69% of rural pupils reveal a favourable disposition.
- (e) The chi-square of these two groups is 0,055 which also makes us ACCEPT the null-hypothesis and conclude that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who stay away from their own homes in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.6. The Effect of People with whom the Pupils stay on Pupil-teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of the 200 urban pupils, 169 stay with one or both parents and 31 stay with relatives. Of the 200 rural pupils 133 stay with their parents and 67 with relatives. It is noted here that twice as many rural pupils stay with relatives as is the case with their urban counterparts. It may be postulated that pupils who stay with relatives and away from their own parents are less likely to receive the necessary attention and encouragement that only a parent can give. The fact that more rural pupils stay with relatives than urban pupils may be due to distances between homes and schools in rural areas, particularly secondary schools.
- (b) Of the urban pupils who stay with their parents, 74,2% are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Of the rural pupils who stay with their parents, 76,4% are favourably disposed towards their teachers.

- (c) The chi-square for these two groups is 0,0918. Therefore, there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who stay with their parents in their disposition towards teachers.
- (d) Of the urban pupils who stay with relatives, 72,9% are favourably disposed while 75,7% of the rural pupils are favourably disposed.
- (e) Their chi-square is 0,0018. We conclude that the null-hypothesis must be ACCEPTED and that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who stay with relatives in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.7. The Effect of the Number of Siblings at Home on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) Of the 200 urban pupils, 76 have up to 3 siblings at home while 124 have more than 3 siblings at home. Of the rural pupils only 52 have 3 or less siblings at home while 148 have four or more siblings. This reveals overcrowding in the typical urban African township small houses, and rural kraals. This overcrowding cannot be conducive to effective learning or study at home. If that is the case, it is assumed that there will be constant trouble between the teacher and the pupil and this may reveal itself in the teacher-pupil relationship.
- (b) Of the urban pupils who have up to 3 siblings at home 74,08% report a favourable disposition, while 75,6% of the rural pupils report a favourable disposition.
- (c) The chi-square of these two groups is 0,00024 which reveals and makes us ACCEPT the null-hypothesis that there is no difference between these two groups in their pupil-teacher relationship.
- (d) Of the urban pupils who have 4 or more siblings, 73,8% are favourably disposed towards their teachers while 71,8% of the rural pupils with 4 or more siblings are favourably disposed towards their teachers.

- (e) The chi-square is 0,568. Again there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who have 4 or more siblings in their disposition towards their teachers.

These findings are interesting if we relate them to other findings. G.W. Miller (1971, p. 50) reports that researchers have confirmed the better educational opportunities enjoyed by children of small families. In a study of 687 fifth grade children, Ferreira and Oakes (1960) found a slight inverse relationship (-0,11) between number of siblings and achievement. Douglas (1964) discovered that eldest children with one or two siblings do better in secondary selection examinations than would be expected from their measured ability.

6.3.8. The Effect of Parents' Occupation on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of the 200 urban pupils only 36 have parents who do skilled work. By skilled work in this case is meant any job for which some school education and training are necessary. This includes professions and trades. Of the 200 rural pupils only 20 pupils have parents who do skilled work. This means parents of 164 urban pupils do unskilled work and parents of 180 rural pupils do unskilled work. This is important to note. G.W. Miller (1971, p. 14) quotes Furneaux (1961) who cited evidence in England of the strong correlation between father's occupational level and children's academic success. At primary school the proportion of children from white-collar families to those of unskilled fathers was 16 : 10. In grammar schools it was 63 : 10; in 6th forms of these schools it was 370 : 10; at university level it rose to 620 : 10. Furneaux attributed these proportions to the superior performance of professional worker's children in academic tests, and the greater willingness of both parents and children in this group to pursue educational goals.

- (b) In the present study, we find that out of the urban pupils whose parents do skilled work, 76,1% report a favourable disposition towards their teachers while 73,5% of the rural pupils report a favourable disposition.
- (c) Their chi-square is 0,0112 which is not significant. We ACCEPT the null-hypothesis and declare that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils whose parents do skilled work in their disposition towards their teachers.
- (d) Of the urban pupils whose parents do unskilled work 73,3% are favourably disposed towards their teachers and 72,9% of the rural pupils are favourably disposed.
- (e) Their chi-square is 0,0023 and we must ACCEPT the null-hypothesis that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils whose parents do unskilled work, in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.9. The Effect of Place of Study at Home on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) Out of the 200 pupils, 112 urban pupils reported that they study in their own rooms at home and 88 study in a common room in the presence of other members of the family. This figure appears strange, in view of the fact that the same pupils reported a high number of siblings. It is not likely that they did not understand the question because this was very clearly explained to them. It is just possible that one room is evacuated by the other siblings during study time if the parents insist on this.

Of the 200 rural pupils, 87 reported that they study in their own rooms and 113 study in a common room. This is more likely because in rural areas children usually use the same room for sleeping. It is even surprising that as many as 87 have their own rooms.

- (b) Of the urban pupils who use their own rooms at home for study, 77,6% are favourably disposed towards their

teachers, while 73,8% of the rural pupils report a favourable disposition.

- (c) Their chi-square is 0,206 which indicates a difference of no significance between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers.
- (d) Of the urban pupils who study in a common room, 69,3% are favourably disposed towards their teachers while 71,1% of the rural pupils who study in a common room are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (e) The chi-square is 0,0127. Therefore, there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who study in a common room in their relationship with their teachers.

6.3.10. The Effect of the type of light used by Pupils for Study at Home

- (a) Of the 200 urban pupils, only 14 reported that they used electric lamps at home and 186 used either paraffin lamps or candles. In the rural areas 16 use electric lamps and 184 used paraffin lamps or candles. One would have expected no electricity at all in rural areas. However, in this case, there are a few pupils attending the Khandisa primary school and Ongoye secondary school in the Mtunzini area, who reside in the rural township of Vulindlela where electricity is available. However, in both areas very few pupils use electricity for lighting at home.
- (b) Of the urban pupils who use good light at home 61,4% report a favourable disposition towards their teachers, while 70,6% rural pupils report a favourable disposition. There is no explanation that can be given for the bigger difference in percentages between the urban and rural pupil who use good light. It might be that smaller figures are responsible.
- (c) The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED since the chi-square of 0,0499 reveals that there is no difference between urban

and rural pupils who use good light for study at home, in their relationship with their teachers.

- (d) Of the urban pupils who use poor light, 74,6% report a favourable disposition and 71,9% rural pupils report a favourable disposition.
- (e) The chi-square is 0,202. Again we must ACCEPT the null-hypothesis and declare that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who use poor light in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.11 The Effect of Noisy or Quiet Surroundings on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 165 urban pupils out of 200 report that it is always or occasionally noisy at or around their homes. 146 rural pupils out of 200 report noise at and around their homes.
- (b) Of the urban pupils who experience noisy conditions around their homes, 74,4% report a favourable disposition towards their teachers while 79,3% rural pupils who have noise around their homes are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (c) While their chi-square of 0,781 shows no significant difference between the urban and rural pupils, the difference shows as might be expected that there is more noise in urban than in rural areas. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.
- (d) Of the pupils who report quiet conditions in their homes, 72,3% of the urban pupils and 71,3% of the rural pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (e) Their chi-square is 0,0194. The null-hypothesis must be ACCEPTED. There is no difference between urban and rural pupils who have quiet conditions around their homes, in their relationship with their teachers.

6.3.12. The Effect of the Availability of Reading Material at Home on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 189 urban pupils out of 200 say they have reading material

at home, while 166 out of 200 rural pupils say they have reading material at their homes. 11 urban pupils and 34 rural pupils say they have no reading material at their homes.

- (b) 73,9% urban pupils and 73,3% rural pupils who have reading material available at home are favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square is 0,000037 which is extremely insignificant. There is absolutely no difference between urban and rural pupils who have reading material at home in their disposition towards their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.
- (d) Of the pupils who report that they have no reading material at home, 76,4% urban pupils and 68,2% rural pupils report favourable disposition towards their teachers.
- (e) However, their chi-square is 0,0177 which shows that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who have no reading material at home in their relationship with their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED. It might be interesting in another study to find out if there is any difference between pupils with and without reading material at home in their school performance.

6.3.13. The Effect of Pupil Encouragement with Homework on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 194 urban pupils and 174 rural pupils out of 200 in each case report that they are encouraged by their parents to attend to their school work at home. Only 6 urban but 26 rural pupils say they are never encouraged by their parents to do homework. In another study, it might be interesting to pursue this trend and find out if urban parents are more interested in the education of their children than rural parents.

- (b) 74,6% urban pupils and 66,1% rural pupils report a favourable disposition towards their teachers.
- (c) While the chi-square of 2,79 (which is the highest so far) still marks a result of no difference between urban and rural pupils in their disposition towards their teachers as influenced by this factor, it is high enough to merit our attention. It would be interesting to find out in what manner and to what extent urban and rural pupils get encouragement from their parents. In this study we find that almost 10% less rural pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Why are rural pupils who are encouraged by their parents to do homework, less favourably disposed towards their teachers than their urban counterparts?
- (d) Of the pupils who report that they are not encouraged by their parents, 63,3% urban and 63,4% rural are favourably disposed towards their teachers. It is interesting to observe that the factor of parent encouragement besides those of age and class, is the only one that produces a favourable pupil disposition of less than 70%.
- (e) Their chi-square is 0,1712. This means there is no difference between urban and rural pupils who are not encouraged by their parents with homework, in their relationship with their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3.14. The Effect of Parents' Educational Level on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 92 urban pupils out of 200 report that their parents had no more than primary school education. 123 rural pupils had parents who had no more than primary school education and a number of them had no education at all. 108 urban and 77 rural pupils had parents who had some secondary school education. It is co-incidental that, in this study, one rural primary school and one rural secondary school, viz. Khandisa primary and Ongoye

secondary school are near a large boarding high school and a university. Therefore, a number of pupils in these schools may be children or dependents of members of staff of these institutions. This may account for the relatively high number of parents in this rural area with secondary school education and above which is not typical of rural areas. However, the figures in this study still show that there are more parents with secondary school education in the urban areas.

- (b) The chi-square for parents with primary school education and less, is 0,0483 and for those with secondary school education is 0,0125. In both cases the difference is insignificant and we postulate that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their disposition towards their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED. What would be interesting to find out in another study directed towards that purpose is whether there is any difference in pupil performance in school work between pupils whose parents have primary school education and those with school education at a secondary level and above. G.W. Miller (1971: p. 8) quotes Blomqvist's study (1958) of Swedish secondary school children which showed that the home's cultural standard ranked with scholastic ability as a determinant of success in school. Schonell (1956) reporting the Unesco Conference on school standards and school failure held at Hamburg in 1956 stated that research discussed suggested that there was more failure among children from families of low cultural level and education.

6.3.15. The Effect of Availability of Breakfast on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 186 urban pupils and 182 rural pupils have breakfast in the morning before they go to school. 14 urban and 18 rural pupils have no breakfast in the morning.
- (b) Of the urban pupils, 73,8% and of the rural pupils 72,9% are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Their chi-square is 0,00618 which means that there is no dif-

ference between urban and rural pupils who have breakfast in the morning in their disposition towards their teachers.

- (c) Of the urban pupils who have no breakfast in the morning, 75,5% are favourably disposed. Of the rural pupils who have no breakfast in the morning 70,6% are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Their chi-square is 0,0056. There is no difference between urban and rural pupils. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3.16. The Effect of Availability of Lunch on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 199 urban pupils and 173 rural pupils have lunch at school. In all urban schools investigated there was a school meals service organised by the school. Only one rural school had a school meals service organised by the school. In the three other rural schools, pupils reported that they either bring their own lunch packets from home, or buy something from local shops. The 1 pupil in an urban school who reported that he did not have lunch at school may have done so for other reasons than availability.
- (b) Of the urban pupils who have lunch at school 74,7% are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Of the rural pupils who have lunch at school 71,6% are favourably disposed towards their teachers. The interesting phenomenon is that even the one pupil who did not take lunch at school showed a 70% favourable disposition towards his teachers. The 27 rural pupils who do not take lunch show a 72,2% favourable disposition.
- (c) The chi-square of pupils who do have lunch at school is 0,31; and for those who do not have lunch is 1,1818. These show no difference between urban and rural pupils in both cases. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3.17. The Effect of Experience of Hunger by Pupils at school on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 178 urban pupils and 175 rural pupils report that they occasionally experience hunger at school. 22 urban and 25 rural pupils report that they never feel hungry at school. These figures appear strange in view of the fact that even a higher number report that they have breakfast and lunch. This may be interpreted by assuming that the quantity and quality of food they take may not be able to keep them satisfied all the time during school hours.
- (b) 73,3% urban and 72% rural pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers. Of those who never experience hunger 76,8% urban and 72,8% rural report a favourable disposition towards their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square for those who experience hunger is 0,0213 and for those who never feel hunger at school it is 0,0048. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED because in both cases there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their disposition towards their teachers.

6.3.18. The Effect of Parents' Aspirations for their Children on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 128 urban pupils out of 200 report that their parents have high aspirations for them. 137 rural pupils out of 200 report that parents have high aspirations for them. For purposes of this research, high aspirations mean that the parents say and make their children aware that they (the parents) desire that their children should leave school only after they have qualified for a certain profession or trade. It is interesting to note that in terms of absolute numbers, more rural parents have higher aspirations for their children. Morrow and Wilson (1961) (quoted by G.W. Miller: 1971, p. 51), report that parents of high achievers have been

found to give their children more praise and approval, to show more interest and understanding, to be closer to their children and to make them feel a stronger sense of belonging.

- (b) However, only 10 urban pupils as opposed to 24 rural pupils report that their parents have low aspirations for them. These are the parents who have definitely stated that their children will leave school before obtaining any qualification for a profession or a trade. From these figures it is deduced that 62 urban parents and 39 rural parents have not indicated to their children what aspirations they have for them. This again reveals a greater interest by rural parents in the education of their children than by urban parents. Probably, urban parents spend very little time with their children because they are at work most of the time. Reasons for this apparent difference should be the subject of careful research.
- (c) 74,6% urban pupils and 72,2% rural pupils whose parents have high aspirations for them report a favourable disposition towards their teachers. Their chi-square is 0,0937 which indicates that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in this category in their disposition towards their teachers. 68% urban and 72,5% of the rural pupils whose aspirations are low report that they are favourably disposed towards their teachers. The chi-square is 0,0229 which also indicates that there is no difference between them in their disposition towards their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3.19. The effect of the pupils' own aspirations on pupil-teacher relationship

- (a) 145 urban pupils and 133 rural pupils have high aspirations of their own where high aspirations are defined in terms of their desire to leave school after obtaining a qualification for a profession or a trade. This is immediately interesting to note. Whereas fewer urban

parents than rural parents were reported to have high aspirations for their children, more urban than rural children have high aspirations of their own. This may be due to a more stimulating urban environment. 8 urban and 12 rural pupils have low aspirations for themselves. This leaves 47 urban and 55 rural pupils who had not yet decided what their aspirations are. These are the pupils who responded that they did not know when they would leave school.

- (b) Of the urban pupils who have high aspirations, and of the rural pupils who have high aspirations, 73,5% and 72,3% respectively report a favourable disposition towards their teachers. Both urban and rural pupils who have low aspirations report 85% favourable disposition towards their parents. It appears strange that pupils with low aspirations should reveal a more favourable disposition. This may be due to a sampling error or it may simply mean that these pupils do not feel pushed by school work and this does not spoil their relations with their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square for the pupils who have high aspirations is 0,0102 and for those who have low aspirations it is 0,4085. Both these show that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers. The null-hypothesis is ACCEPTED.

6.3.20. The Effect of Pupils' Desired Careers on Pupil-Teacher Relationship

- (a) 173 urban pupils out of 200 and 150 rural pupils out of 200 desire to follow a professional career. The common professions open to Africans were suggested in the questionnaire (4.4.), and these were: doctor, lawyer, teacher, nurse, engineer, social work; and the pupils were requested to include any other they may desire. Skilled jobs suggested were carpenter, tailor, mechanic, driver, clerk etc. 27 urban and 50 rural desired to

follow a skilled trade. These figures corroborate the findings in paragraph 6.3.19 about pupils' own aspirations where it was found that more urban pupils than rural pupils had high aspirations of their own.

- (b) 73,9% urban and 72,1% rural pupils are favourably disposed towards their teachers. 70% urban and 74,6% rural pupils who desire a skilled job career reported that they were favourably disposed towards their teachers.
- (c) The chi-square for those who desire a professional career is 0,0621 and that for those who desire a skilled job career is 0,0271. In both cases these indicate that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils, who desire either a professional career or a skilled job career, in their disposition towards their teachers. The null-hypothesis is, therefore, ACCEPTED.

6.4. POSSIBLE REASONS FOR THE FINDINGS OF "NO DIFFERENCE" BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL PUPILS

6.4.1. Cultural Patterns among the Africans

The all-embracing traditional unit in the social organisation is the tribe, based on a central group or nucleus of families descendent from a common ancestor. The central group provides the men of authority in the tribe in accordance with the principle of inherited status. The binding factor upon which the survival of the tribe as a unit depends, is the chief (Tomlinson Report: 1955, p. 2). Another strong element holding the social fabric together is family relationship, based on the patrilineal system. Of great importance is the fact that every individual, in accordance with a system of classification of relationships, can have several "fathers", "mothers", "brothers" and "sisters". This fosters the formation of a large group of mutually dependent people with mutual privileges and responsibilities.

It is possible, therefore, that the teacher is regarded by the pupils as a "father" or a "mother". In African society, it is unthinkable that a child can have poor relations with his or her parents. It was pointed out in chapter 2 of this research that training and education of the young are integrated with the whole cultural system. This research expected to find rural pupils more favourably disposed towards their teachers than urban pupils because it was expected that the contact situation with foreign cultures in urban areas would have disrupted the traditional patterns of relationship.

6.4.2. Social and economic arrangements in African society

The social life of the Africans has been influenced by the operation of new economic demands as well as those of the school and the church. The integration and utilisation of the Africans as labourers and their consequent urbanisation have given rise to many problems as the housing shortage in urban areas. This migration to the towns has been described as a natural economic phenomenon, comparable with the process of urbanisation in other countries. There are, however, basic differences between the African immigration to the towns and the ordinary process of urbanisation. For the Africans, urbanisation has the following implications (Tomlinson Report: 1955, p. 102):

- (a) the relatively primitive population group is transferred to what, to them, is a highly developed environment with a completely strange social, economic, political and linguistic milieu.
- (b) owing to the racial differences, and the racial laws of the country, the Africans entering the towns are adopted into the existing African community only (and are not integrated into the European community as occurred in the case of poor whites when they underwent the

process of urbanisation). The result is that the unstable and uncertain character of the urban African community is thereby intensified.

(c) problems of a much wider scope are created than are usually connected with the process of urbanisation.

The absence of class differentiation in African society might account for the absence of tension because there is not much need to compete. It is unnecessary to work hard in order to achieve a higher status. The traditional African community is characterised by a strong and active collective or community consciousness, contrasting sharply with the individualistic outlook of western society. The community as a whole provides social security for the individual. Mutual aid is taken for granted. The marriage system and allied customs have the general effect of protecting the family from want in the event of the loss or death of the family head. This social system ensures that the individual will not suffer as long as the community has the means of subsistence. This is a system that does not encourage great exertion with the object of building up private wealth (Tomlinson Report: p. 99, par. 18). This social atmosphere can be expected to result in a relaxed and a favourable relationship between people.

Whereas differences between urban and rural pupils could be expected, this research did not reveal these. A possible reason can be found in the following statement by the Tomlinson Commission Report (1955, p. 62, par. 1 (v)):

"Social conditions arising in urban areas with a concentrated Bantu population which has rejected tribal tradition, but has often not yet realised or accepted the truly western way of existence, are strongly reflected in the tribal territories where the traditional social pattern is adversely affected by the constant flow of population between the rural and the urban areas".

As a result of the cultural background and the social arrangements in African society, it is possible that the disruptive influence of urbanisation has not gone so far as

to disrupt the interpersonal relationships between individuals. Hence, there is no significant difference between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers.

1. Behr, A.L. (1973) : Methods and Techniques of Educational and Psychological Research

6.4.3. Recent arrivals in urban areas

2. Douglas, J.W.P. (1961) : The Urban Townships in Natal. The Umlazi township was established in 1963. The first secondary school was opened in 1965. A great number of the population of Umlazi has still ties in tribal areas where they keep their tribal allotments of land. Tribal customs, values and attitudes still exist in urban areas. This fact may account for the "no difference" finding in the disposition of the pupils towards their teachers in urban and rural areas. This may not apply to the nucleus of educated, trained and completely urbanised Africans who may form the advance guard.

3. Miller, G.W. (1961) : Economic Development of South Africa. The Government Printer, Pretoria.
6. Siegel, S. (1956) : Non-Parametric Statistics. McGraw-Hill, New York.

In the light of the foregoing explanation, it is not surprising to find that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers.

Economic Development of South Africa
The Government Printer, Pretoria

6.5. RESUMÉ

The manner of analysing data was described in this chapter. It was shown that the χ^2 test was the one suitable for use in analysing this data statistically. A discussion of the results was undertaken. Each of the twenty independent variables was analysed and the results were interpreted. It was found that there was no difference between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers. The next chapter, which is the last one, will give an overview of this research in the form of a summary of conclusions and certain recommendations will be made.

6.5. REFERENCES

1. Behr, A.L. (1973) : Methods and Techniques in Educational and Psychological Research; J.L. van Schaik, Pretoria.
 2. Douglas, J.W.B. (1964): The Home and the School; McGibbon & Kee.
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 4. Miller, G.W. (1971) : Educational Opportunity and the Home, Longmans, London.
 5. Schonel, F.J. (1956) : "School Failure" in The Slow Learning Child, 3, University of Queensland Press,
 6. Siegel, S. (1956) : Non-parametric Statistics, MacGraw Hill Book Co. Inc. New York.
 7. Summary of the Report of the Commission for the Socio-Economic Development of the Bantu Areas within the Union of South Africa, U.G. 61/1955 (Tomlinson Commission), The Government Printer, Pretoria.
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CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

It is now necessary to recapitulate and give an overall view of this research.

7.2. RESTATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The general problem that we set out to investigate was the description of some factors which affect the quality of a didactic situation in African schools in the Province of Natal. As a result of the historical development and socio-economic conditions of African society in South Africa, a need was felt for certain factors which affect the quality of teaching to be identified and described. These factors were linked up with the five components of a didactic situation, namely, pupil, teacher, subject matter, learning process and learning environment. The main problem in African schools is that of finding ways and means of improving the quality of work that takes place in school so that the pupils can be assisted to develop into wholesome personalities and be able to realise their full potential. Many problems of a sociological nature exist in African society. These have a bearing on the pedagogical activities that take place at school.

7.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to reveal that certain factors influence the quality of teaching in African schools. It is necessary for educators and administrators of African education to keep these in mind lest they toil in vain. For

this revelation to come out clearly, it was necessary to map out some factors both on the macroscopic or societal level and on the microscopic or personal level. The aim was to prove that unless these socio-economic problems are attended to and an attempt made at solving them, the quality of education in African schools will remain low. Since there are many factors that go to make up a teaching situation, one factor, namely PUPIL-TEACHER relationship, was selected for empirical study. This was done from a conviction that the essence of a teaching situation lies, in the final analysis, in the nature and quality of the personal relationship that exists between the pupils and their teacher. The study was, therefore, intended to reveal whether the various sociological and economic factors affect the quality of this relationship significantly.

7.4. METHODS EMPLOYED IN THIS STUDY

7.4.1. Study of background literature

The literature studied, as shown in the references at the end of each chapter, and the general bibliography at the end of the whole report, was the main source of background information related to the problem that was felt to exist. From the study of this literature it was soon realised that the scope of this problem was so wide that the investigation had to be limited, first, to a general mapping out of the factors, and then a description of some factors that were assumed to affect the quality of teaching. The historical background described in chapter 2 helped to explain the origin and development of some problems that grew to affect the quality of teaching and learning in African schools. The main points revealed by this historical setting are that school education for the Africans was imposed from without by the missionaries who had the very good intention of evangelising the non-Christians. School education in African society did not grow from within the society itself as a

result of felt needs. A number of problems were, therefore, inherent in this situation. These problems revealed themselves in a clash of cultures and value systems, and this clash manifested itself in the curriculum, medium of instruction, financial provision for education, control and administration of schools. The Eiselen Commission Report (1949 - 1951) came as a watershed in the education of the Africans in South Africa. It tried to reconcile the socio-economic situation of the Africans with the administration of education.

A discussion of the social and economic problems that formed a background to specific factors that have a bearing on the quality of teaching was given in chapter 3. The social structure of the South African population as described by Kinloch (1972) puts the Africans at a disadvantage. The specific factors that are found within the classroom are described in chapter 4.

7.4.2. Empirical study

The field investigation consisted of an empirical study of ONE FACTOR, namely pupil-teacher relationship. The research design and procedure are described in chapter 5. The interview and the questionnaire techniques were used in gathering data. Two areas were selected from which a sample of schools would be used for purposes of interviewing their pupils. One area was urban and the other rural. Two hundred pupils were interviewed from each area. During this interview the pupils answered a questionnaire of Appendix 1 A. Data collected in this way was processed by means of the χ^2 test in order to determine its statistical significance.

7.4.3. Comparative method

This data was analysed and interpreted on a comparative basis in order to find out whether there are significant differences between urban and rural standard 6 and Form III pupils in their relationship with their teachers.

7.5. CONCLUSIONS

7.5.1. Complexity of factors

This investigation reveals that there is a complexity of factors which have a bearing on what happens in a didactic situation. These factors are related to the main components of a didactic situation as already stated in paragraph 7.2. It is realised that since a didactic situation is an integrated whole, a multi-factor analysis can bring out a more valid result. However, the following points which emerged from the present study are of interest:

7.5.2. Confirmation of the Null-hypothesis

It was found that there is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their relationship with their teachers. The analysis was done from twenty different angles where one independent environmental factor was held constant and observations made of their responses to certain factors which were assumed to be dependent on or influenced by the factor held constant. We can, therefore, conclude that as far as this investigation was able to reveal, the two environments (namely urban and rural) do not significantly alter the relationship of the children with their teachers.

7.5.3. The extent of pupil-teacher relationship

Twenty variables which might be expected to have a bearing upon the teacher-pupil relationship, were analysed in this study. In each case over 70% of the pupils were found to be favourably disposed towards their teachers. This result is interesting because it shows a definite trend in pupil-teacher relationship. This is, of course, on the assumption that the ten dependent variables (cf. items 2.1. to 2.10. in appendix A 1) used in this study are valid in revealing pupil-teacher relationships.

7.5.4. The pupils' responses to classroom conditions

A great majority of pupils find school work interesting, classroom atmosphere interesting and happy and they feel free to discuss their problems with their teachers.

7.5.5. The extent of punishment inflicted by teachers

This investigation revealed that teachers punish their pupils a great deal. About 75% of the pupils say they are frequently or occasionally punished by their teachers. Nevertheless, in spite of this excessive punishment, the majority of the pupils report that they do not fear their teachers, and in fact, they like them.

7.5.6. General conclusion

A great majority of the pupils interviewed report that their teachers' explanations are good. In fact this investigation showed that there is no problem between the teachers and their pupils. From this we may conclude that the reason for the poor quality of teaching in African schools does not lie in the area of pupil-teacher relationship to a very significant extent.

7.6. RECOMMENDATIONS

Although this study was focussed upon pupil-teacher relationships, it is recommended that the following points revealed by this research be attended to as topics for future investigation:

7.6.1. The pupils' home conditions

It is necessary to find out whether the pupils' home conditions in respect of crowdedness, noise, the quality and quantity of food taken at breakfast and lunch are related to effective learning at school.

7.6.2. The parents' educational level

The relationship between parents' educational level and the pupils' performance at school should be thoroughly investigated.

7.6.3. Parental encouragement with school work

Research should be undertaken into the effect that parental encouragement with school work at home, and parents' aspirations for their children have upon the pupils' achievement in school subjects.

7.6.4. The 20 independent variables

It will be necessary to find out whether the 20 independent variables treated in this investigation in relation to pupil-teacher relationship have any relation to the pupils' school achievement in school subjects.

7.6.5. Punishment

In a short discussion which followed each session with the pupils when the questionnaire was administered, the pupils were allowed to say anything which they did or did not like at school. A great majority stated that sports, games and music were their favourite activities. An even greater majority stated that they did not like the manner and the extent to which they were punished at school. G.W. Miller (1971, p. 53) states that punishment has been described by Davis (1947) as one of the most important methods used in United States society to extinguish undesired habits and impel new behaviour, this being one of the motivators of adaptive socialised anxiety. It is strongly recommended that future investigations be conducted with a view to finding out the influence of punishment on school performance. It will be interesting to find out if there is any relationship between the harsh treatment in the classroom and the drop out rate, for instance.

7.7. THE NEED FOR MORE RESEARCH

It is submitted that the present research merely drew attention to the many factors which affect the quality of teaching and learning in African schools. One factor, namely, pupil-teacher relationship, was studied empirically in order to point the way for future research. The figures which constitute the data shown in appendixes 1 - 20 can still be used to extract more information from which further conclusions can be based. This study emphasised the unity of a pedagogic situation. Therefore, it is suggested that the most significant research in this connection will have to take into account all the relevant factors at the same time and determine their effect on a didactic situation in African schools.

7.8. CONCLUSION

This investigation can be aptly ended up by a quotation from Morphet (1967; p. 390):

"If relevant learning is to be significantly enhanced in our schools, effective ways will have to be found to improve both the internal and external environments for education. Those involved in education must be sufficiently perceptive and creative to find appropriate ways of working with parents, with students and with various organisations and agencies to improve the standards, expectations and conditions in the schools, in the community, and perhaps even in the state.

7.9. REFERENCES

1. Kinloch, G.C. (1972) : The Sociological Study of South Africa; MacMillan, Johannesburg.
2. Miller, E.L. (1971) : Educational Opportunity and the Home; Longman's, London.
3. Morphet, E.L. & Johns, R.L.; Reller, T.L. (1959) : Educational Organisation and Administration; Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
4. Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Native Education, 1949 - 1951 (Eiselen Commission); U.G. No. 53/1951.

APPENDIX A. 1.
QUESTIONNAIRE

(To be answered by school pupils)

You are requested to answer this questionnaire HONESTLY and TRUTHFULLY. Your answers will not be seen by your teachers and parents. You should also not write your name anywhere on this questionnaire. This is to ensure that your identity is not revealed, and, therefore you need not fear to answer truthfully. Use a tick (✓) in the chosen space.

Column ----- CODE

1. GENERAL:

- | | | | |
|----|--|------------------------------|---|
| 7 | 1.1 Place where your school is situated: | Urban | 1 |
| | | RURAL | 2 |
| 8 | 1.2 Class: Standard II | 1 | |
| | Standard VI | 2 | |
| | Form III | 3 | |
| 10 | 1.3 Age | Between 7 and 10 years: | 1 |
| | | Between 11 and 14 years:.... | 2 |
| | | Between 15 and 17 years:.... | 3 |
| | | Over 17 years | 4 |
| 12 | 1.4 Sex: BOY | or GIRL | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| 13 | 1.5. Place of birth: | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |

2. PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP:

- | | | | |
|----|---|---|--|
| 16 | 2.1 Is the atmosphere cheerful and happy in class? | | |
| | 2.1.1 Yes, always | 1 | |
| | 2.1.2 Occasionally | 2 | |
| | 2.1.3 Seldom | 3 | |
| 17 | 2.2 Does your class teacher make classwork interesting? | | |
| | 2.2.1 Yes, always | 1 | |

<u>Column</u>	<u>CODE</u>	
18	2.2.2 Occassionally	2
	2.2.3 Seldom	3
	2.3 Does your teacher encourage class discussion and let pupils feel free?	
	2.3.1 Yes, always	1
	2.3.2 Occassionally	2
	2.3.3 Seldom	3
19	2.4 Is your teacher cheerful and laughs at the jokes made by pupils?	
	2.4.1 Yes, always	1
	2.4.2 Occassionally	2
	2.4.3 Seldom	3
22	2.5 Does your teacher talk to you after classes about problems that may be bothering you?	
	2.5.1 Yes, always	1
	2.5.2 Occassionally	2
	2.5.3 Seldom	3
23	2.6 Does your teacher scold and punish you?	
	2.6.1 Yes, frequently	1
	2.6.2 Occassionally	2
	2.6.3 Very seldom does	3
24	2.7 Does your teacher cause you to be afraid to ask questions?	
	2.7.1 Yes, we are always afraid	1
	2.7.2 Occassionally, we are afraid .	2
	2.7.3 No, we are never afraid to ask questions	3
27	2.8 Does your teacher have mannerisms that irritate pupils?	
	2.8.1 Yes	1
	2.8.2 No	2
28	2.9 Does your teacher explain things so that pupils easily understand?	
	yes	1
	No	2

<u>Column</u>	<u>CODE</u>	
29	2.10 Do you like your teachers?	1 2 3
	2.10.1 Yes, very much	
	2.10.2 Yes, a little	
	2.10.3 Not at all	
	3. <u>PUPILS' HOME CONDITIONS:</u>	
33	3.1 Where do you stay?	1 2 3
	3.1.1 I stay at my own home	
	3.1.2 I stay with relatives	
	3.1.3 I stay with non-relatives ..	
34	3.2 With whom do you stay?	1 2 3
	3.2.1 With both parents all the time	
	3.2.2 With mother only	
	3.2.3 With father only	
	3.2.4 With other relatives only	
36	3.3 What is the name of your father's job?	1 2
37	3.4 What is the name of your mother's job?	1 2
39	3.5 How many children (brothers & sisters) are there at home?	1 2
40	3.6 Where do you study at home?	1 2
	3.6.1 In a special room used by me only	
	3.6.2 In a room where there are other people	
42	3.7 What sort of light do you use for studying at home?	1 2 3
	3.7.1 Candles	
	3.7.2 Paraffin lamp	
	3.7.3 Electricity	

Column	CODE
<p>43 3.8 Are there people who disturb you while you are studying?</p> <p>3.8.1 Yes, frequently</p> <p>3.8.2 Yes, occassionally</p> <p>3.8.3 Very seldom</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>
<p>44 3.9 Do your parents or guardians read newspapers and books at home?</p> <p>3.9.1 Yes, daily</p> <p>3.9.2 Occassionally</p> <p>3.9.3 Never</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>
<p>47 3.10 Do your parents encourage you to do homework and read at home?</p> <p>3.10.1 Yes, frequently</p> <p>3.10.2 Occassionally</p> <p>3.11.3 Never</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>
<p>48 3.11 What is the educational level of your parents?</p> <p>3.11.1 Never been to school</p> <p>3.11.2 Went as far as Standard II ..</p> <p style="padding-left: 150px;">Standard VI ..</p> <p style="padding-left: 150px;">Secondary School ...</p> <p style="padding-left: 150px;">University ...</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p> <p>5</p>
<p>52 3.12 Is there a noise near your home?</p> <p>3.12.1 Yes, always</p> <p>3.12.2 Occassionally</p> <p>3.12.3 No, it is always quiet</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>
<p>53 3.13 What do you usually eat every morning before school?</p> <p>3.13.1 Mealie meal porridge</p> <p>3.13.2 Bread and tea</p> <p>3.13.3 Left over from previous night ..</p> <p>3.13.4 Any other (mention)</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p>
<p>56 3.14 Do you feel hungry while you are at school?</p> <p>3.14.1 I always feel hungry</p> <p>3.14.2 I occassionally feel hungry ...</p> <p>3.14.3 I never feel hungry</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>

Column

CODE

57	<p>3.15 What do you eat during lunch at school?</p> <p>3.15.1 There are school meals at my school</p> <p>3.15.2 I bring along my own food from home</p> <p>3.15.3 I buy from the local shop near the school</p> <p>3.14.4 I do not eat at all during lunch at school</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p>
<p>4. <u>GOALS AND ASPIRATIONS:</u></p>		
61	<p>4.1 When do your parents say you will leave school?</p> <p>4.1.1 After passing standard II ...</p> <p>4.1.2 After passing standard VI ...</p> <p>4.1.3 After passing Junior Certificate</p> <p>4.1.4 After getting a certificate for a profession or trade</p> <p>4.1.5 They do not say</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p> <p>5</p>
62	<p>4.2 When do you want to leave school?</p> <p>4.2.1 Immediately</p> <p>4.2.2 After Standard Six</p> <p>4.2.3 After Junior Certificate</p> <p>4.2.4 After obtaining a profession or trade</p> <p>4.2.5 I do not know yet</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p> <p>4</p> <p>5</p>
66	<p>4.3 Where will you work when you leave school?</p> <p>4.3.1 At home</p> <p>4.3.2 Near my home</p> <p>4.3.3 Far away from home ...</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>
67	<p>4.4 What profession or trade would you like to get when you leave school?</p> <p>Labourer Policeman</p> <p>Factory worker ... Nurse</p> <p>Office Clerk School teacher .</p> <p>Farmer..... Doctor</p> <p>Carpenter Lawyer</p> <p>Tailor Engineer</p>	<p>1</p> <p>2</p> <p>3</p>

<p>Dressmaker Bus driver</p> <p>Storekeeper Motor mechanic ..</p> <p>Any other (mention)</p> <p>-----</p>	
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APPENDIX A. 2.

EXPLANATION OF THE RAW DATA PRESENTED IN APPENDIXES 1 - 20

1. Column refers to figures shown on the left hand side of the questionnaire items.
2. Code refers to figures on the right hand side of the questionnaire. These figures are used in the punching of the cards which are used to facilitate the counting of the frequency of responses as described in chapter 4.
3. I - refers to either the urban (Column 7, code 1) or rural (Column 7, code 2) environments. This variable is kept constant in all observations in the 20 tables.
4. II - refers to the independent variable that is kept constant in each observation of the pupils' responses as shown in each of the 20 tables.
5. (a), (b), (c), (d) - refer to the pupils' responses to each of the 10 dependent variables that are supposed to indicate that the pupils are well-disposed towards their teachers. Therefore, they are assumed to reveal good pupil-teacher relationship.
6. The mean scores (\bar{X}) of the pupils' responses and the percentages of means to the total number of pupils are calculated and recorded at the bottom of each table. This data is then used in the text for purposes of discussion, comparisons, compiling the χ^2 statistics and the interpretation of data.

APPENDIX I

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO CLASS

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	CLASS	8	2	2	2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
1.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	100	98	98	97
1.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	98	98	94	93
1.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	93	92	81	82
1.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	90	98	83	72
1.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	76	56	52	53
1.6	Punishment	23	3	14	16	10	12
1.7	Fear	24	3	68	88	66	56
1.8	Mannerisms	27	2	76	77	58	44
1.9	Explanations	28	1	96	92	90	81
1.10	Liking	29	1	87	81	48	58
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	79,8	79,6	68,0	64,8
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	100	100	100	100
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				79,8%	79,6%	68,0%	64,8%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who are in standard 6.
- (b) Rural pupils who are in standard 6.
- (c) Urban pupils who are in Form III.
- (d) Rural pupils who are in Form III.

APPENDIX 2

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO AGE

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2	-	2
II	AGE	10	2	2	2	-	-	-	-
			3			3	3	-	-
			4					4	4
2.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	74	33	94	100	30	63
2.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	74	32	89	101	29	60
2.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	67	32	85	91	22	53
2.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	67	33	82	98	25	41
2.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	54	16	57	63	17	31
2.6	Punishment	23	3	12	5	11	11	1	12
2.7	Fear	24	3	55	29	60	71	17	44
2.8	Mannerisms	27	2	54	28	62	66	16	28
2.9	Explanations	28	1	71	31	87	95	27	56
2.10	Liking	29	1	62	25	58	77	14	38
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	59,0	26,4	68,5	77,3	19,8	42
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	74	33	96	104	30	63
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				79,7%	80%	71,4%	74,3%	66%	67

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils in the age group 11 - 14 years
- (b) Rural pupils in the age group 11 - 14 years
- (c) Urban pupils in the age group 15 - 17 years
- (d) Rural pupils in the age group 15 - 17 years
- (e) Urban pupils in the age group over 17 years
- (f) Rural pupils in the age group over 17 years

APPENDIX 3

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO SEX

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	SEX	12	1	1	1	-	-
			2	-	-	2	2
3.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	93	90	95	105
3.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	89	87	103	105
3.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	76	80	98	95
3.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	78	77	95	94
3.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	56	52	73	57
3.6	Punishment	23	3	11	14	13	14
3.7	Fear	24	3	59	67	75	77
3.8	Mannerisms	27	2	55	56	79	65
3.9	Explanations	28	1	85	83	101	98
3.10	Liking	29	1	54	69	81	70
MEAN Scores			\bar{X}	65,6	67,5	81,3	78,0
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	95	92	105	108
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				69,05%	73,4%	77,4%	72,2%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who are males
- (b) Rural pupils who are males
- (c) Urban pupils who are females
- (d) Rural pupils who are females

APPENDIX 4

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PLACE OF BIRTH

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PLACE OF BIRTH	13	1	1	1	-	-
			2	-	-	2	2
4.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	41	88	157	107
4.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	41	86	151	106
4.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	37	79	137	95
4.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	36	79	137	92
4.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	27	49	101	60
4.6	Punishment	23	3	18	16	22	12
4.7	Fear	24	3	30	69	104	75
4.8	Mannerisms	27	2	28	61	106	60
4.9	Explanations	28	1	41	81	145	100
4.10	Liking	29	1	25	69	110	70
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	32,4	67,7	117,0	77,7
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	43	90	157	110
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				75,3%	75,2%	74,5%	70,6%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who were born within the area
- (b) Rural pupils who were born within the area
- (c) Urban pupils who were born without the area
- (d) Rural pupils who were born without the area

APPENDIX 5

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PLACE OF RESIDENCE

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PLACE OF RESIDENCE	33	1	1	1	-	-
			2 & 3	-	-	2 & 3	2 & 3
5.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	175	121	23	74
5.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	169	119	23	73
5.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	152	114	22	61
5.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	154	110	19	61
5.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	112	73	16	36
5.6	Punishment	23	3	22	20	2	8
5.7	Fear	24	3	122	88	12	56
5.8	Mannerisms	27	2	118	81	16	40
5.9	Explanations	28	1	166	109	20	72
5.10	Liking	29	1	117	89	18	50
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	130,7	92,4	17,1	53,1
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	177	123	23	77
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				73,8%	75,1%	74,3%	69%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who stay at their own homes
- (b) Rural pupils who stay at their own homes
- (c) Urban pupils who stay away from their homes
- (d) Rural pupils who stay away from their homes

APPENDIX 6

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PEOPLE WITH WHOM THE
PUPILS STAY

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PEOPLE with whom RESPONDENT stay	34	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3 & 4	-	-	3 & 4	3 & 4
6.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	167	132	31	63
6.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	163	126	31	63
6.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	147	120	27	55
6.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	147	116	26	58
6.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	111	71	17	38
6.6	Punishment	23	3	18	20	6	8
6.7	Fear	24	3	112	95	22	49
6.8	Mannerisms	27	2	115	127	19	38
6.9	Explanations	28	1	159	119	27	62
6.10	Liking	29	1	115	90	20	63
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	125,4	101,6	22,6	50,7
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	169	133	31	67
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				74,2%	76,4%	72,9%	75,7%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who stay with either one or both parents
- (b) Rural pupils who stay with either one or both parents
- (c) Urban pupils who stay with other relatives
- (d) Rural pupils who stay with other relatives

APPENDIX 7

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF SIBLINGS AT HOME

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Number of SIBLINGS	39	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
7.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	74	52	124	143
7.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	74	50	118	142
7.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	69	47	105	128
7.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	63	49	110	122
7.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	48	26	80	83
7.6	Punishment	23	3	13	7	11	21
7.7	Fear	24	3	49	41	85	103
7.8	Mannerisms	27	2	51	34	83	87
7.9	Explanations	28	1	71	48	115	133
7.10	Liking	29	1	51	39	84	100
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	56,3	39,3	91,5	106,2
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	76	52	124	148
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			74,08%	75,6%	73,8%	71,8%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who have up to 3 siblings at home
- (b) Rural pupils who have up to 3 siblings at home
- (c) Urban pupils who have 4 or more siblings
- (d) Rural pupils who have 4 or more siblings

APPENDIX 8

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PARENTS' OCCUPATION

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PARENTS' OCCUPATION	36 or 37	1	1	1	-	-
			2	-	-	2	2
8.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	36	20	162	175
8.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	35	19	157	173
8.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	30	17	144	158
8.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	31	15	143	156
8.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	26	10	102	99
8.6	Punishment	23	3	3	4	21	24
8.7	Fear	24	3	29	15	105	129
8.8	Mannerisms	27	2	25	12	108	113
8.9	Explanations	28	1	35	18	150	164
8.10	Liking	29	1	24	17	110	122
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	27,4	14,7	120,2	131,3
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	36	20	164	180
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				76,1%	73,5%	73,3%	72,9%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils whose parents do skilled work
- (b) Rural pupils whose parents do skilled work
- (c) Urban pupils whose parents do unskilled work
- (d) Rural pupils whose parents do unskilled work

APPENDIX 9

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PLACE OF STUDY AT HOME

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PLACE of STUDY at Home	40	1	1	1	-	-
			2	-	-	2	2
9.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	111	85	87	110
9.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	110	84	82	108
9.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	103	79	72	86
9.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	100	72	73	99
9.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	74	47	54	62
9.6	Punishment	23	3	15	13	9	15
9.7	Fear	24	3	82	62	52	82
9.8	Mannerisms	27	2	81	54	53	67
9.9	Explanations	28	1	109	81	77	100
9.10	Liking	29	1	84	65	51	74
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	86,9	64,2	61	80,3
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	112	87	88	113
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				77,6%	73,8%	69,3%	71,1%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who study in their own rooms at home
- (b) Rural pupils who study in their own rooms at home
- (c) Urban pupils who study in a common room at home
- (d) Rural pupils who study in a common room at home

APPENDIX 10

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO TYPE OF LIGHT USED
FOR STUDY

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Type of LIGHT used for study	42	3	3	3	-	-
			1 & 2	-	-	1 & 2	1 & 2
10.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	12	16	185	181
10.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	12	15	179	178
10.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	11	15	163	163
10.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	10	16	163	156
10.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	9	6	132	102
10.6	Punishment	23	3	0	3	25	23
10.7	Fear	24	3	10	14	125	126
10.8	Mannerisms	27	2	0	0	120	107
10.9	Explanations	28	1	13	16	170	163
10.10	Liking	29	1	9	12	125	125
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	8,6	11,3	138,7	132,4
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	14	16	186	184
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				61,4%	70,6%	74,6%	71,9%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who use good light for study at home
- (b) Rural pupils who use good light for study at home
- (c) Urban pupils who use poor light for study at home
- (d) Rural pupils who use poor light for study at home

APPENDIX 11

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO NOISE OR DISTURBANCE

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	NOISY or QUIET	52	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
11.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	165	143	34	52
11.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	161	141	32	51
11.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	145	130	31	47
11.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	148	123	25	45
11.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	107	84	20	25
11.6	Punishment	23	3	22	110	2	5
11.7	Fear	24	3	112	108	22	37
11.8	Mannerisms	27	2	107	87	27	34
11.9	Explanations	28	1	152	134	33	48
11.10	Liking	29	1	109	98	27	41
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	122,8	115,8	25,3	38,5
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	165	146	35	54
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				74,4%	79,3%	72,3%	71,3%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who are disturbed by noise at home
- (b) Rural pupils who are disturbed by noise at home
- (c) Urban pupils whose homes are quiet
- (d) Rural pupils whose homes are quiet

APPENDIX 12

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO THE AVAILABILITY OF
READING MATERIAL AT HOME

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Availability of reading material	44	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
12.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	188	161	11	34
12.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	182	159	11	33
12.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	164	146	10	28
12.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	166	143	10	28
12.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	120	93	7	13
12.6	Punishment	23	3	23	23	2	5
12.7	Fear	24	3	127	121	7	23
12.8	Mannerisms	27	2	123	103	7	16
12.9	Explanations	28	1	177	149	11	31
12.10	Liking	29	1	128	119	8	21
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	139,8	121,7	8,4	23,2
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	189	166	11	34
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				73,9%	73,3%	76,4%	68,2%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who have reading material at home
- (b) Rural pupils who have reading material at home
- (c) Urban pupils who DO NOT have reading material at home
- (d) Rural pupils who DO NOT have reading material at home

APPENDIX 13

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO ENCOURAGEMENT BY PARENTS

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Pupil Encouragement with Home-work	47	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
13.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	191	172	6	24
13.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	186	168	6	24
13.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	171	155	3	20
13.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	168	150	5	21
13.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	124	97	3	9
13.6	Punishment	23	3	24	25	0	4
13.7	Fear	24	3	129	125	4	17
13.8	Mannerisms	27	2	141	110	4	11
13.9	Explanations	28	1	181	159	5	23
13.10	Liking	29	1	133	124	2	15
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	144,8	115,1	3,8	16,8
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	194	174	6	26
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			74,6%	66,1%	63,3%	64,6%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who are encouraged by their parents.
- (b) Rural pupils who are encouraged by their parents.
- (c) Urban pupils who are NOT encouraged by their parents.
- (d) Rural pupils who are NOT encouraged by their parents.

APPENDIX 14

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
OF PARENTS

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Educational level of Parents	14	1,2,3	1,2,3	1,2,3	-	-
			4,5	-	-	4 & 5	4 & 5
14.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	91	122	107	75
14.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	88	119	104	75
14.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	76	114	98	63
14.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	79	106	84	67
14.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	62	70	66	44
14.6	Punishment	23	3	9	22	14	6
14.7	Fear	24	3	52	85	81	59
14.8	Mannerisms	27	2	57	69	77	46
14.9	Explanations	28	1	83	111	102	70
14.10	Liking	29	1	65	84	71	54
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	66,2	90,2	80,4	55,9
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	92	123	108	77
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			71,9%	73,3%	74,4%	72,6%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils whose parents' educational level is not beyond the primary school.
- (b) Rural pupils whose parents' educational level is not beyond the primary school.
- (c) Urban pupils whose parents' educational level is the secondary school or above.
- (d) Rural pupils whose parents' educational level is the secondary school or above.

APPENDIX 15

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO THE AVAILABILITY
OF BREAKFAST

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Availability of BREAKFAST	53	1,2,3	1,2,3	1,2,3	-	-
			4	-	-	4	4
15.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	186	178	14	17
15.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	178	174	14	18
15.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	161	158	13	17
15.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	162	154	11	17
15.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	119	97	10	11
15.6	Punishment	23	3	24	27	0	1
15.7	Fear	24	3	125	130	9	13
15.8	Mannerisms	27	2	121	114	11	7
15.9	Explanations	28	1	170	164	14	18
15.10	Liking	29	1	126	130	10	8
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	137,2	132,6	10,6	12,7
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	186	182	14	18
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				73,8%	72,9%	75,7%	70,6%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who take some breakfast in the morning.
- (b) Rural pupils who take some breakfast in the morning.
- (c) Urban pupils who take NO breakfast in the morning.
- (d) Rural pupils who take NO breakfast in the morning.

APPENDIX 16

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO THE AVAILABILITY
OF LUNCH

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	Availability of LUNCH	57	1,2,3	1,2,3	1,2,3	-	-
			4	-	-	4	4
16.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	199	168	1	25
16.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	192	166	1	25
16.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	175	154	1	20
16.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	174	146	1	24
16.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	128	95	1	11
16.6	Punishment	23	3	25	23	0	4
16.7	Fear	24	3	136	118	0	22
16.8	Mannerisms	27	2	138	97	0	20
16.9	Explanations	28	1	185	156	1	23
16.10	Liking	29	1	135	116	1	21
MEAN SCORES			\bar{X}	148,7	123,9	0,7	19,5
TOTAL No. of Pupils			n	199	173	1	27
Percentage of \bar{X} to n				74,7%	71,6%	70%	72,2%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who have lunch at school
- (b) Rural pupils who have lunch at school
- (c) Urban pupils who DO NOT have lunch at school
- (d) Rural pupils who DO NOT have lunch at school

APPENDIX 17

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO THE EXPERIENCE OF HUNGER AT SCHOOL

	VARIABLES	Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	HUNGER	56	1 & 2	1 & 2	1 & 2	-	-
			3	-	-	3	3
17.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	177	169	22	25
17.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	170	168	22	23
17.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	152	154	21	21
17.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	154	151	19	20
17.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	111	96	15	10
17.6	Punishment	23	3	21	24	3	3
17.7	Fear	24	3	121	123	13	19
17.8	Mannerisms	27	2	119	101	14	18
17.9	Explanations	28	1	165	154	20	25
17.10	Liking	29	1	114	120	20	18
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	130,4	126	16,9	18,2
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	178	175	22	25
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			73,3%	72%	76,8%	72,8%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who sometimes experience HUNGER at school
- (b) Rural pupils who sometimes experience HUNGER at school
- (c) Urban pupils who NEVER experience HUNGER at school
- (d) Rural pupils who NEVER experience HUNGER at school

APPENDIX 18

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PARENTS'
ASPIRATIONS FOR THEIR CHILDREN

	VARIABLES	Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PARENTS' Aspirations	61	4	4	4	-	-
			1,2,3	-	-	1,2,3	1,2,3
18.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	122	133	10	23
18.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	120	133	8	22
18.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	113	120	6	20
18.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	118	115	8	21
18.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	85	80	7	10
18.6	Punishment	23	3	16	19	0	3
18.7	Fear	24	3	87	98	7	17
18.8	Mannerisms	27	2	85	74	5	18
18.9	Explanations	28	1	120	122	10	22
18.10	Liking	29	1	89	95	7	18
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	95,5	98,9	6,8	17,4
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	128	137	10	24
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			74,6%	72,2%	68%	72,5%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils whose parents have high aspirations for them
- (b) Rural pupils whose parents have high aspirations for them
- (c) Urban pupils whose parents have low aspirations for them
- (d) Rural pupils whose parents have low aspirations for them

APPENDIX 19

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PUPILS' OWN
ASPIRATIONS

VARIABLES		Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PUPILS' OWN ASPIRATIONS	62	4	4	4	-	-
			1,2,3	-	-	1,2,3	1,2,3
19.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	142	131	8	11
19.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	139	131	8	11
19.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	125	115	7	11
19.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	124	113	8	12
19.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	100	71	7	8
19.6	Punishment	23	3	16	18	3	5
19.7	Fear	24	3	100	93	5	11
19.8	Mannerisms	27	2	94	79	6	11
19.9	Explanations	28	1	133	119	8	11
19.10	Liking	29	1	93	91	8	11
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	106,6	96,1	6,8	10,2
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	145	133	8	12
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			73,5%	72,3%	85%	85%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils whose own aspirations are high
- (b) Rural pupils whose own aspirations are high
- (c) Urban pupils whose aspirations are low
- (d) Rural pupils whose aspirations are low

APPENDIX 20

PUPILS' RESPONSES ACCORDING TO PUPILS' DESIRED CAREERS

	VARIABLES	Column	Code	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
I	PLACE where school is situated	7	1	1	-	1	-
			2	-	2	-	2
II	PUPILS' desired careers	67	1	1	1	-	-
			2,3,4	-	-	2,3,4	2,3,4
20.1	Atmosphere	16	1 & 2	170	147	27	48
20.2	Interest	17	1 & 2	167	145	24	47
20.3	Freedom	18	1 & 2	151	132	22	43
20.4	Cheerfulness	19	1 & 2	152	128	21	43
20.5	Discussion	22	1 & 2	114	75	13	34
20.6	Punishment	23	3	18	20	6	8
20.7	Fear	24	3	115	104	18	40
20.8	Mannerisms	27	2	115	93	18	28
20.9	Explanations	28	1	160	135	25	46
20.10	Liking	29	1	118	103	15	36
	MEAN SCORES		\bar{X}	128	108,2	18,9	37,3
	TOTAL No. of Pupils		n	173	150	27	50
	Percentage of \bar{X} to n			73,9%	72,1%	70%	74,6%

KEY TO PUPILS' RESPONSES

- (a) Urban pupils who desire to pursue a professional career
- (b) Rural pupils who desire to pursue a professional career
- (c) Urban pupils who desire to pursue a skilled trade
- (d) Rural pupils who desire to pursue a skilled trade

APPENDIX 21

A SUMMARY OF THE COMPUTATION OF χ^2

$$\text{FORMULA: } \chi^2 = \frac{N \left(\left| \frac{AD - BC}{N} - \frac{N}{2} \right| \right)^2}{(A + B)(C + D)(A + C)(B + D)} \quad \text{df} = 1$$

Hypothesis (cf 4.7.4)	χ^2	Significance Level
1 (a) (b) Class	0,0197 0,1085	not significant not significant
2 (a) (b) Age (c)	0,0522 0,0980 0,0065	not significant not significant not significant
3 (a) (b) sex	0,2400 0,5140	not significant not significant
4 (a) (b) Place	0,0390 0,2180	not significant not significant
5 (a) (b) Residence	0,0133 0,0550	not significant not significant
6 (a) (b) People	0,0918 0,0018	not significant not significant
7 (a) (b) Siblings	0,00024 0,5680	not significant not significant
8 (a) (b) Occupation	0,0112 0,0023	not significant not significant
9 (a) Place of (b) study	0,2060 0,0127	not significant not significant
10 (a) (b) Light	0,0499 0,2020	not significant not significant
11 (a) (b) Noise	0,7810 0,0194	not significant not significant
12 (a) Reading (b) material	0,000037 0,0177	not significant not significant

13	(a) Encourage- (b) ment	2,7900 0,1712	not significant not significant
14	(a) Parents' (b) educational level	0,0483 0,0125	not significant not significant
15	(a) (b) Breakfast	0,0061 0,0056	not significant not significant
16	(a) (b) Lunch	0,3100 1,1818	not significant not significant
17	(a) (b) Hunger	0,0213 0,0048	not significant not significant
18	(a) Aspirations (b) of parents	0,0937 0,0229	not significant not significant
19	(a) Pupils' own (b) aspirations	0,0102 0,4085	not significant not significant
20	(a) Desired (b) careers	0,0620 0,0270	not significant not significant

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SUMMARY

1. OUTLINE

The investigator felt perturbed by the apparent lack of quality in African schools. This absence of quality revealed itself in such manifestations as high drop-out rates, high failure rates and the apparent lack of proof that pupils who had gone through school actually benefitted from their schooling.

It became clear to the investigator that there must be some factors which influence or determine the quality of a didactic situation in the environmental situation in which the African pupils find themselves. This problem is described in chapter 1.

In order to understand the nature of the problem, it became necessary to sketch briefly the historical development of African education in Natal, and to relate all this to the present socio-economic conditions under which the African people live. This is done in chapters 2 and 3. The factors which are assumed to have a bearing on the quality of teaching are dealt with in chapters 3 and 4.

2. METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

From these factors, one factor, namely PUPIL-TEACHER relationship, was chosen for empirical study. A questionnaire designed to reveal the pupils' disposition towards their teachers was administered to a sample of 400 pupils, half of whom were from rural schools and the other half from urban schools. The pupils' responses are tabulated in juxtaposition in chapter 5. A statistical analysis of data using the chi-square test is presented in chapter 6 in order to test the significance of the differences between the urban and the rural environments.

3. PRINCIPAL FINDINGS OF THE INVESTIGATION

- 3.1. There is no difference between urban and rural pupils in their disposition towards their teachers.
- 3.2. Most pupils report that the atmosphere in their classrooms is usually cheerful, and the lessons are interesting.
- 3.3. Pupils receive a lot of punishment from their teachers, but inspite of this, pupils report that they like their teachers. However, secondary school pupils report less liking for their teachers and they are more irritated by the teacher's mannerisms.
- 3.4. Girls seem to be more favourably disposed towards their teachers than boys.
- 3.5. A great majority of pupils have 4 or more siblings at home.
- 3.6. A great majority of the pupils' parents in both rural and urban areas, do unskilled work.
- 3.7. Many pupils use poor light for studying at home.
- 3.8. There is always a noise around the place in which they study. Most pupils study in a room where there are other people.
- 3.9. Most pupils have breakfast in the morning and lunch at school, but many report that they experience hunger at school.
- 3.10. Most pupils have high aspirations for themselves and they desire a professional career.

The factors described in this research point to the necessity of carrying out more research that will reveal the areas which require attention in the administration of African schools in order to improve the quality of teaching.

OPSOMMING

1. OMLYNING

Die ondersoeker is begaan oor die uiterlik waarneembare gebrek aan kwaliteit in Bantoeskole. Hierdie gebrek het aan die lig gekom in verskynsels soos 'n hoë koers in skoolverlating, en hoë persentasie druipepinge en ook die algemene gebrek aan bewyse dat die leerlinge wat wel hul skool-loopbaan voltooi het, werklik uit hul opleiding baat gevind het.

Dit het vir die ondersoeker duidelik geword dat daar sekere faktore is wat die kwaliteit van 'n didaktiese situasie in die omgewings-toestand waarin die swart leerlinge hulle bevind, beïnvloed of bepaal. Hierdie probleem word in Hoofstuk 1 bespreek.

Ten einde die aard van die probleem te begryp, was dit nodig om kortliks die historiese ontwikkeling van Bantoe-onderwys in Natal te skets en om al hierdie feite in verband te bring met die sosio-ekonomiese toestande waaronder die Bantoe lewe. Hierdie saak word in Hoofstukke 2 en 3 behandel. Die faktore wat blykens die ondersoek invloed uitoefen op die kwaliteit van onderrig, word in Hoofstukke 3 en 4 toegelig.

2. METODE VAN ONDERSOEK

Uit hierdie faktore, is een faktor, naamlik die verhouding Leerling-Onderwyser, uitgekies vir empiriese studie. 'n Vraelys wat beplan is om die verhouding van die leerlinge teenoor hulle leerkragte vas te stel, is aan 'n monstergroep van 400 leerlinge voorgelê. Die helfte van die leerlinge het uit stedelike gebiede en die ander helfte uit plattelandse skole gekom. Die antwoorde van die leerlinge is teenoor mekaar gerangskik in Hoofstuk 5. 'n Statistiese ontleding van die gegewens wat met toepassing van die "chi-kwadraat-toets" gemaak is, word in Hoofstuk 6 verstrekk ten einde die betekenis van die verskille tussen die stedelike en plattelandse omgewings te toets.

3. HOOFBEVINDINGE UIT DIE ONDERSOEK

- 3.1 Daar is geen verskil tussen stedelike en plattelandse leerlinge t.o.v. hul gesindheid jeens hul onderwysers nie.
- 3.2 Die meeste leerlinge rapporteer dat die gees in hul klas-kamers gewoonlik aangenaam en die lesse boeiend is.
- 3.3 Leerlinge word dikwels deur hul onderwysers gestraf, maar ten spyte daarvan verklaar die leerlinge dat hulle van hul onderwysers hou. Sekondêre skoolleerlinge sê egter dat hulle minder van hul onderwysers hou en meer deur die onderwyser se manniërismes geïrriteer word.
- 3.4 Meisies toon blykbaar 'n gunstiger gesindheid jeens hul onderwysers as seuns.
- 3.5 'n Groot meerderheid leerlinge het vier of meer broers of susters tuis.
- 3.6 'n Groot meerderheid van die leerlinge se ouers in sowel stedelike as plattelandse gebiede doen ongeskoolde werk.
- 3.7 Baie leerlinge gebruik swak lig vir studie tuis.
- 3.8 Daar is altyd geraas rondom hulle en die meeste leerling studeer in 'n vertrek waar daar ander aanwesig is.
- 3.9 Die meeste leerlinge eet ontbyt tuis en die middagete by die skool, maar 'n groot aantal rapporteer dat hulle by die skool honger bly.
- 3.10 Die meeste leerlinge het hoë aspirasies vir hulself en verlang 'n professionele loopbaan.

Die faktore wat in hierdie ondersoek beskrywe word, dui op die noodsaaklikheid van verdere ondersoeke wat op hul beurt die terreine sal openbaar wat aandag verg in die administrasie van Bantoeskole ten einde die gehalte van die onderrig te verbeter.
